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AUTHOR Gagni, A. O.; Bartels, Francis L.
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ABSTRACT

This report addresses the United Nations Educational Scientific Cultural Organization's (UNESCO) goals for activities related to the development of education in rural areas. Studies were conducted in China, the Philippines, Tanzania, Yugoslavia, Botswana, and Sierra Leone. The first section deals with the analytical study of information on educational legislation, and administrative and financial measures designed to facilitate access to all types and levels of education in rural areas, including measures studied in-depth in China, the Philippines, and Tanzania. Section two presents case studies on the role of the village school in the development of rural areas. Researchers studied two contrasting village schools in Serbia, Yugoslavia, the Community Junior Secondary School in Botswana, and three rural projects in Sierra Leone including the Bunumbu Teacher Training Project and its satellite schools. The final section contains findings and recommendations. The objectives of rural development should include balanced social and economic development. Priority should be given to: (1) the generation of new employment; (2) more equitable access to land and distribution of income; (3) widespread improvements in health, nutrition, and housing; (4) broadened opportunities for all individuals to realize their full potential through education; and (5) a strengthened role for rural people in making decisions that affect their lives. The three appendices are shortened forms of the studies on educational measures in China, the Philippines, and Tanzania. (KS)

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United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization

A Study of Legislative Measures Designed to Facilitate Access to Education and of the Role of the Village School in the Development of Rural Areas

Paris, January 1990

ED-90/WS-8

A STUDY OF LEGISLATIVE MEASURES DESIGNED TO FACILITATE ACCESS TO EDUCATION AND OF THE ROLE OF THE VILLAGE SCHOOL IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL AREAS

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

Paris, January 1990

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Prepared by :

A. O. GAGNI

Chief, Section of Agricultural Education and Education in Rural Areas, Division of Primary Education, Literacy and Adult Education and Education in Rural Areas, Unesco

and

FRANCIS L. BARTELS

Formerly Chief of the Africa Division, Education Sector, Unesco

The opinions expressed in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views and policies of Unesco

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INTRODUCTION

Origins, purpose and structure of the study

The General Conference of Unesco decided at its 23rd and 24th Sessions that activities under its Major Programme II.5 - Development of Education in Rural Areas - should include:

> the analytical study of information on educational legislative, administrative and financial measures designed to facilitate access to all types and levels of education in rural areas (23 C/5, para. 02505.1);
>
> case studies on the role of the village school in the development of rural areas (23 C/5, para. 02514.1); and
>
> the dissemination of the results of such studies (24 C/5, para. 25041.1.1).

Accordingly, the following studies were conducted on:

Measures - in co-operation with:

(i) Shaanxi Pedagogical Institute, China;
(ii) Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports, Philippines;
(iii) Institute of Adult Education, Tanzania; and

The Village School and its Role in Development in Rural Areas, in co-operation with:

(i) Institute of Education Development of the Socialist Republic of Serbia, Yugoslavia;
(ii) National Commission for Unesco, Botswana; and
(iii) Ministry of Education, Cultural Affairs and Sports, Sierra Leone.

In the interest of brevity, the six studies are referred to in this Study, wherever practicable, by the names of the countries in which the co-operating institutions responsible for conducting them are located. Thus, the study by the Institute of Education Development of the Socialist Republic of Serbia, Yugoslavia, is simply called «Yugoslavia». Sources of information are indicated in brackets; and where the source is one or other of the six studies in their original, just the number of the page is shown.

The Study is organized in three sections. The section entitled «Measures to facilitate access to education in rural areas» deals with the educational legislative, administrative and financial measures promulgated by the countries to facilitate access to, and to improve, all types of education in rural areas. It is selective and brief in the case of Yugoslavia, Botswana and Sierra Leone which were studied more for their experiences of the role of the village educational institution in the development of rural areas than for the directives and measures behind the effort.

This section draws more heavily on the studies and relevant bibliography on China, Philippines and Tanzania which were primarily concerned with legislative measures behind educational action. It appropriately directs attention to notable features in the history of educational thought behind the legal texts of the measures under consideration.

Section two «Case studies», comprises case studies on the role of village schools in the development of rural areas. Selected for the necessary detailed study are two contrasting village schools in Serbia, Yugoslavia; the Community Junior Secondary School in Botswana, and three rural projects in Sierra Leone including the Bunumbu Teacher Training Project and its satellite schools. Abridged versions of the background material supplied by the studies will be found in the Appendices.

The final section deals with findings and recommendations.

There are three Appendices. They are shortened forms of the studies on educational measures in China, Philippines and Tanzania.

The table below is based on information supplied, on the one hand, by the United Nations Population Division, the Unesco Office of Statistics and the World Bank for the years 1980 and 1985 and, on the other hand, by the six studies mentioned above for the year 1987. It should be noted that column 4, «1st level gross enrolment ratios», includes repeaters and entrants below and above the legal age of entry. It, therefore, reflects school capacity rather than progress towards universal primary education (UPE).

Country	Year	Population		Gross Enrolment Ratios		Illiteracy Rate 15+	GNP per head in US$
		Total in 000s	Rural	1st level	2nd level		
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
CHINA	1980	996134	79%	112	46	34.5%(1982)	
	1985	1059520	79%	124	39		310
	1987	1000000	80%			25.0%	
PHILIPPINES	1980	48317	62.6%	113	65	16.7%	
	1985	54497	61%	106	65		580
	1987		70%	96			
TANZANIA	1980	18868	83.5%	93	3	53.7%(1978)	
	1985	22500	86%	73	3		290
	1987		90%			15.0%	
BOTSWANA	1980	915	84.7%	91	19		
	1985	1107	80.0%	104	29	29.2%	840
	1987	1100					
SIERRA	1980	3296	75.0%	54	14		
LEONE	1985	3602	75.0%	58	17	70.7%	350
	1987						
YUGOSLAVIA	1980	22299	57.6%	100	83		
	1985	23154	55.0%	96	80	8.8%	2070

The table shows how dissimilar the six countries are from several points of view - size of population; achievements in the provision of school places at the first and second levels of education; the fight against illiteracy; and income per head of population - and yet how close they are to one another in one respect; they face common problems due to the fact that, as reflected in column 3, the majority of their people live in rural areas, often remote from urban centres and without adequate infrastructional facilities. In the case of Yugoslavia, this majority is a little over 50 per cent of the population whereas China, Tanzania and Botswana have more than 80 per cent of their people in the countryside. The Philippines and Sierra Leone stand between the two extremes with 70 and 75 per cent respectively.

Weak foundations of rural education

The table hides wide differences within each of the six countries. Such differences compound the difficulty of bringing basic education of the right content within the reach of all in the effort to improve the quality of life for all. Below is a random sample from the six studies of some of the disabling conditions in which many a rural community have to begin their search for better education for a better quality of life.

China's majority rural population are dispersed among «townships and villages in a middle stage of development» on the one hand and «poor rural and mountainous inland areas in an early stage» on the other. It is such differences that «decide which standards shall be applied in the immediate future, the scale and speed of reform and the actual content of the school programmes» (page 9).

Within Yugoslavia's majority «there are both very developed and extremely undeveloped villages. Those undeveloped villages are situated far away from towns and are without electricity and the service of the mass media», although their number is on the decrease. There is the experience of one school, «Djaci» (which means «walking pupils»), set in a mountainous area. Some pupils walk up to 35 kms. a day to school and back. It is not possible to organize transportation for them owing to lack of roads (pages 8, 29).

The Philippines has its «educationally deprived communities in remote rural areas» (page 1). When its Republic Act 4090 passed into law in June 1964 to help «deserving high school students to pursue tertiary education .... the majority of those who availed themselves of the opportunity were from the capital and urban and provincial towns where universities and colleges were available» (page 12). Few from the rural areas could benefit from the measure.

Sierra Leone provides a graphic example of a socially-deprived group of 725 inhabitants in the village of Tongay, 5 kms. away from Pujehun, a developing rural community that is well-served by six primary and two secondary schools and two non-formal educational centres. In contrast, «the living conditions of the inhabitants of Tongay are far from satisfactory. Most of the houses are in bad condition. Most of them are built with mud and wattle. There is neither electricity nor pipe-borne water system ... There is no formal educational institution». Children have to walk to Pujehun to attend school (page 17).

Wherever one turns, one sees the dice heavily loaded against communities within each majority of the population, in rural areas. By virtue of the remoteness of some of their number from urban centres, Tanzania's majority have to be satisfied with a lower quota of qualified teachers than is accorded to urban schools; the Ministry of Education stipulates that «in any primary school of seven grades in urban areas there must be eight teachers including at least three trained grade A staff while in a rural primary school there should be seven teachers including at least two trained grade A teachers» (page 30). Evidently, without such calculated discrimination, some village schools cannot meet staffing requirements.

In Botswana, «dependency of the majority on cattle-herding and agriculture makes the poulation very mobile; and a large proportion of the country's households divide their time between three different dwelling places - the cattle post, the fields, and the village (page 4)». The mobility continues in a second direction, at a tangent to the internal circular movement, towards a limited number of urban centres - that being one of the reasons why Gaborone, the capital, has become one of the fastest growing cities in Africa (page 52).

In such circumstances as any of those indicated above, rural education is a veritable casualty with little to rest on. The following verdict of the China study, therefore, applies - in varying degrees - to the other five countries as well:

> «There are accomplishments of which one can be proud. But these 'should not hide the fact that China's rural education cries out for immediate reform and further development ... The basic foundations of the country's rural education remain very weak. At present, primary education is still not universal. Illiteracy has not been eliminated and the newly literate, young and older, often drop back into the ranks of the illiterate for lack of educational support. Vocational education in rural areas is new and fragile. School operating conditions are very poor. Teacher shortages and lack of financial resources add to the list'». (Page 5).

And yet, as pointed out by the Yugoslavia study, the village or rural schools, which stand on such slender foundations and often have to face the problem of dwindling numbers due to migration into urban areas, have to take on the functions of cultural centres. They are called upon to mediate as much of the influences as possible of which their counterparts in urban areas benefit from «movies, theatres, exhibitions and alternative cultural movements. The small rural schools are the institutions that are expected to provide and improvise such experiences in the villages» (page 8). Set among such larger parts of the population as in China, their reform and improvement and those of other institutions «should have a large impact on improving the quality of the greater part of China's labour force ... and make an important contribution to the educational progress of the nation as a whole» (page 4), while underpinning development effort with enhanced skills and capabilities from the rural workforce (page 6).

At the other end of the spectrum of perspectives of rural development in which rural schools have an important part to play is the view from the Botswana study. The view is very largely based on Education for Rural Development by Ahmed and Coombs. It points out that the diversity of natural resources, socio-economic structures, cultural patterns and political systems

of countries seeking to improve the lot of the majority of their populations who happen to live in rural areas make it difficult, even impossible, to develop approaches which would be effective in all circumstances. Nevertheless it is generally agreed that objectives of rural development should include «balanced social and economic development, with emphasis on equitable distribution. Priority should be given to:

(a) the generation of new employment;

(b) more equitable access to land and distribution of income;

(c) widespread improvements in health, nutrition and housing;

(d) greatly broadened opportunities for all individuals to realize their full potential through education; and

(e) a strong voice of rural people in making decisions that affect their lives.

Although there is no single formula for entering these routes towards rural development, education is viewed as one of the main factors in such a development» (page 2).

Education in this context, states the Botswana study, is not bound by space, time and place. «It stretches beyond the school and beyond the chronological time limits of formal education. It is not to be thought of as something for children only. Addressing itself to rural development, education should be multi-dimensional, bringing about change in the attitudes of the rural community as well as imparting knowledge and skills. The rural school should not be self-contained, isolated institution, but should strive to be in dialogue with the whole of the surrounding community» (page 2). This presupposes that what goes on within it and outside it would be adapted to technological changes with the support, as suggested by the China study, of a «thorough-going rural education research so as to promote understanding of the importance of the issues involved». Far from being «an extraneous factor in general economic development», education in rural areas needs to be carried out with vigour (pages 6, 7).

Strengthening the foundations

It is by so doing that the foundations can be strengthened and the rural educational institution, which is frequently saddled by so many disabilities, can be assisted to play its role in development. The school in the rural areas, whether serving the interest of the young or providing a centre for school and community inter-action through service to adults in co-operation with other institutions, has an important role to play in the development process. How it can be changed; how it can be adapted and improved for the better performance of that role; the experiments to which it is being subjected to make it respond more effectively to the needs of its community - these are among the considerations behind thought and action in education in the six countries studied. Thought in terms of educational legislation, and administrative and financial measures designed to facilitate access to education in rural areas and to guide action is considered in the first section of this study.

I. MEASURES TO FACILITATE ACCESS TO EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS

The educational legislative, administrative and financial measures mentioned in the six studies as having been designed to facilitate access to all types and levels of education in rural areas, or as having guided action in the village school for the purpose of improving school and community relations, are wide-ranging and of different kinds. They include the White Paper, an official document that announces a government viewpoint and intended action; the Education Act, Law, Decree, Executive Order or Directive, with a finality about it, as regards what must be done; recommendations of Education Commissions, Committees and Review Panels, which have been accepted for implementation by Government; and proposals in national development plans. Their common feature is the stamp of government approval they bear, which may or may not have passed into law but which makes any one of them an approved guide to educational thought and action.

Two of three studies devoted specifically to such measures - the Philippines and Tanzania - present their findings in three broad categories. First, there were the measures of the pre-independence period. A second group initiated after political independence were designed to correct or adjust or reinforce certain elements in the inherited system. A third category were put in place to promote individual and social well-being in a nation that had taken full charge of its destiny. In contrast, the third study - China - mentions solely the Compulsory Education Law of June 1986, presenting it as having summed up past piece-meal measures or decisions on the popularization of education (page 8).

Measures mentioned in case studies in three countries

Yugoslavia (Serbia)

So, in fact, do the provisions of the Yugoslavia Constitution, in general, which defined «education as one of the crucial factors in the development of a socialist society» and «the latest plan for the development of primary education», in particular, which was drawn up by the Educational Council of the Socialist Republic of Serbia and referred to as the Primary Education Law (pages 4, 7, 20).

The Primary Education Law stressed once again one of the principal concerns behind the major educational reform of 1958, the concern to achieve a better integration of school and community. Two indicative paragraphs of the Law underlined the need, first, to strengthen the influence of the community on the school and vice-versa and, second, to revive the importance of the small school, usually to be found in the rural areas. The entitlement of citizens to participate, directly or indirectly, in decision-making affecting economic development and their own life of work should logically lead to such citizens taking an interest in the schools which prepare themsevles and others. Conversely, the school should establish strong links with the community into which its graduates would live and work. Indeed, the Law considered it obligatory for the school to «co-operate with parents, the local community, youth organizations and such sectors of activities as industry and agriculture ... Primary schools, both in villages and urban areas, are obliged to broaden their co-operation with the local community» (page 7).

The more remote a primary school is from normal infrastructional facilities and large concentrations of people the more important is its role and, indeed, the greater should be its potential in providing a centre for the continuing cultural development of the small community in which it is placed, irrespective of its own disabilities of lack of facilities, small enrolment or reduced number of classes. In such circumstances, the school can be the only educational and cultural institution. The need is to help it to play that role, according to the Primary Education Law.

The implications for curriculum construction were foreseen by the Law in its provision that «ten per cent of the total number of lessons (hundred per year) must be scheduled by the local community» as community programmes in contrast with such compulsory content as are considered necessary for the individual development of every child. To achieve the desired results, suggestions for curriculum construction are prepared by the authorities in co-operation with the Institute for the Development of Education of the Socialist Republic of Serbia. They are published for study and comments before a final plan is considered and adopted by the Educational Council. The adopted proposals form the basis for the preparation of the curricula by the schools themselves in co-operation with their regional and local pedagogical institutions, sources of financial support and representatives of the local community (page 10). The responsibility that devolves on the remote rural school is immense; but so is its privilege to match the content of 10 per cent of its work with the needs of the community.

The Yugoslavia study gives an example of such a school, «Djaci pesaci» already introduced, in Stranjani, a village situated in a mountainous region 1,300 m. above sea-level and 35 kms. away from the nearest town with a cattle-raising population whose numbers are being eroded by emigration. Fifteen years previously there were 270 pupils in the school.

At the time of the study there were but 80 pupils, whose eleven teachers and themselves were the only members of the community with formal education. The study presents the school with its eight grades as an example of a small rural institution whose survival is of the utmost importance for the social and cultural life of the village. Its link with the local population has been growing stronger than before through a school-community group of activities (pages 29, 30), details of which are given in the Yugoslavia case study in the second section of this document.

Experience has shown that the village schools have tended, as they carry out the provisions of the Law, to gear their community programmes to agriculture (truck-farming and animal husbandry, fruit-growing, health education, traffic education, folk arts and crafts and tourism). In practice, the Law does allow a measure of flexibility which enables village schools and communities to include in their community programmes topics that are already in the compulsory programmes but which the schools and their community feel should be taught to a greater depth in their area. Examples are health and traffic education.

Sierra Leone

Having attained political independence in 1961, Sierra Leone «was spurred to undertake badly-needed improvements in its educational system by several factors. Among them was shortage of skilled manpower» (page 11). The country counted among its pre-independence educational legislative, administrative and financial measures the White Paper on Educational Development of 1958. Its post-independence guidelines included a Ten Year Plan of Economic and Social Development 1962/1963-1971/1972; a Development Programme in Education 1964-1970; a White Paper on Educational Policy of 1970; a Five-Year National Development Plan 1974/1975-1978/1979; the Education Sector Review of 1974, and the Education Sector Study of 1979 (page 10). Of these, the White Paper of 1970 and Sector Review of 1974 may be said to have set the pace for a much-needed change in education in the rural areas.

The White Paper of 1970 stated that priority was to be given to the improvement in both the quality and quantity of primary school education. It was also the Government's intention to extend and diversify agriculture and to improve the quality of rural life. Sharpening these policy statements into a measure to direct action, President Siaka Stevens said, three years later, that an integrated approach to development would be adopted. It would involve the rural population «in the total transformation of the teacher training college into a community college and a group of primary schools - to be known as pilot schools - into community schools» (page 5).

The Sierra Leone Education Sector Review of 1974 put more details into the evolving design as follows. The Bunumbu Community Teachers' College and up to 20 pilot primary schools would be developed as growth points for accelerating the expansion of the educational base in the rural areas without major increases in Government expenditure. In co-operation with the Ministries of Health, Agriculture and Social Welfare, the College and the pilot schools would offer facilities for meetings, classes, practical demonstrations and the application of audio-visual media - the radio, mobile library and mobile cinema - in extending education to listening and discussion groups in a non-formal setting. In other words, the entire scheme would use a Community Teachers' College, Community Education Schools, and Community Education Centres (within or attached to the Pilot Schools or established in appropriate cachment areas) for the extension of education. A UNDP/Unesco supported project, focussed on the College and concerned not only with preparing community teacher-leaders but also with developing primary school curriculum was planned to start in 1974/1975. It would be funded by UNDP/Unesco for a minimum of five years with a substantial contribution from UNICEF and other aid agencies.

One distinctive feature of the thinking which preceded and followed the measures leading to the establishment of the UNDP/Unesco-supported Bunumbu Project was the argument that any concept of a terminal or shorter primary course for rural schools would be counter to Government's desire to accelerate rural development. Because of the need to enhance the outlook on farming and rural life, it was necessary that all primary schools, rural and urban, should follow the same over-all curriculum. Such a common curriculum would lead to an appreciation, by graduates of the primary school which used them, of the skills needed for successful farming and a ready acceptance of manual work in town or country as an honourable way of life. An equally important parallel reason for a uniform syllabus was that the inclusion of some agricultural background in all schools would be to the advantage of those who would move on to higher education and ultimately fill senior positions in the nation. They would be

in a better position to appreciate the problems of the rural areas (Report: Joint UNDP/Unesco Project Formulation Mission, SIL/73/000, 14 December 1973).

It was in this spirit that pilot primary schools were associated with the Bunumbu Teachers' College, the Institute of Education in Fourah Bay College and the Science Curriculum Development Centre of the second University College at Njala for a dual function. They were to evolve a new curriculum for the College itself and a lively common curriculum for all children which should stress the realities of the social economic life of Sierra Leone.

The insistence in Sierra Leone on a common curriculum at this turning point in its educational history is unique among the countries which are the subject of this Study. Although practice eventually led to less rigidity, the measures of the 1970s were not understood to be applied with the room for manouvre allowed under the Yugoslavia Primary Education Law or with the degree of flexibility which, as we shall see later, characterized the approach in China.

The seemingly rigid line of Sierra Leone has been traced partly to the country's long and honourable record of achievements in higher education. Fourah Bay College, its leading higher educational institution, was established in 1815 to train young men in useful trades or farming and the brighter ones as pastors and teachers. Closed in 1826, it was revived the following year. It continued its training activities and was upgraded to University status in 1876 when it intensified its work of providing university education for many men and women throughout West Africa. Its twin institution, Njala University College, which was founded in the hinterland near Bo in 1964 to offer courses in agriculture, education and related subjects, joined it in forming the University of Sierra Leone in 1967 at the time the changes which the various measures already referred to were being enunciated.

In the course of establishing this long record of high academic quality, the school system developed a rather academic approach with the primary system looking to the secondary school curriculum and the secondary school curriculum looking towards university entrance requirements. Consequently, the type of education offered by the schools and demanded by parents became remote from the realities of the basic needs of Sierra Leone, particularly to the needs of the rural majority (N. Okafor: The Development of Universities in Nigeria, Longmans 1971, p.11; Report: UNDP/Unesco Project Formulation Mission, 14 December 1973, p.4).

In circumstances where political power after independence was shifting from the minority coastal peoples to the majority in the hinterland, it would have been unthinkable to suggest that the new curriculum for the new nation and the syllabuses based on it could accommodate wide differences in content in terms of different physical and human economic and environmental needs and yet preserve a uniform standard of demand on the intelligence and performance of pupils. There were always defendable educational reasons for not having one curriculum for urban areas and another for rural areas. But the Sierra Leone case was a special one and any other approach would have aroused too many emotions. Within it were elements of both conflict and the incentive to resolve it.

In the final analysis, practice brought about more than one type of school into existence in the rural areas at different stages in the progress towards relevant education and effective school-community relations. Other countries reached similar results but without insisting, in the first instance, on a uniform curriculum and the same over-all syllabuses.

Twelve years after the Education Sector Review of 1974, four types of village/community schools could be identified. A Community Education School was operating within the immediate influence of, and drawing support from, the Bunumbu Teachers' College. It was providing formal primary education to children on the basis of a new common curriculum, an organized non-formal education for adolescents and adults who had never been to school on the one hand and adolescents who had completed most or all of the primary school courses without having gone to a secondary school on the other hand. It was the Colleges' practising or demonstration school and the only one of its kind in the country (page 7). A second type of school was the Pilot School or any one of 19 satellite schools within the 20 mile radius of the Bunumbu Teachers' College; they were following hard on the heels of the Bunumbu school and were engaged with it in the experimentation afoot. A third type was the Community Education Centre originally designed to serve the three groups of adolescents and adults mentioned above as being reached by the Bunumbu school in its non-formal activities. Among them were the Community Education Centre at Pujehun, the Betty Carew Training Centre at Yonibana and the Taima Educational Centre at Taima, of which more later in the third section of this study. The last and fourth type was the village school which was continuing to mediate the familiar formal kind of education (pages 6, 7), although a number, described as «feeder schools», were beginning to be drawn into the orbit of the Bunumbu experiment and «the programme of improving curriculum» (Terminal Report: Primary School Teachers for Rural Areas, Paris 1983, p.7).

Collaboration with the Institute of Education, Fourah Bay, had made available a primary school curriculum with a rural emphasis, with optional components covering urban learning needs to be substituted or added where appropriate, had been made available. It included syllabuses in Language Arts, Social Studies, Practical Arts, Music, Mathematics, Religious Knowledge, Home Economics, Agricultural Sciences and Health and Physical Education. Over 300 teaching units corresponding to the content covered by the subjects listed above had been written and distributed to the pilot schools. A variety of pupil's materials had been written and produced such as reading books, workbooks and guide sheets related to the activities covered in both the syllabuses and teaching units. A procedure had been established for carrying out an evaluation of the curriculum being developed and the material being written and produced (Terminal Report: Primary School Teachers for Rural Areas, Paris 1983, pages 5,6).

The new curriculum and syllabuses were being disseminated through the other four Teacher Colleges of the country - Makeni, Portloko, Bo and Freetown (page 13).

Botswana

Botswana did not have Sierra Leone's academic head-start. It gained its independence in 1966, when «the total number of its citizens holding degrees ... was 40» in a country with 251 primary schools and nine secondary schools while

«university education took place outside its borders». Its experience of shortage of manpower was worse than what Sierra Leone had known in 1961. An economic survey on the eve of independence had drawn attention to the poor state of education and the serious implications this had for the effort to build up the public service with nationals. The teaching profession was to lose many of its primary school teachers to the public service during the first years after independence. Too much required to be done in too short space of time. High-level manpower planning proceeded; but the urgent post-independence need in legislation appeared to be the preparation of the ground for the rapid expansion in provision that had to be undertaken for the construction of a sound educational base (page 40).

The immediate post-independence Education Act of 1967, therefore, sought to ensure that certain requirements and conditions would be fulfilled when a school is established. In anticipation of the wide variety of facilities that would have to be considered in the circumstances of acute shortage within this predominantly rural country, the Act defined a school as:

> «an institution in which not less than ten pupils receive regular instruction, whether by way of personal tuition or by correspondence, and any assembly of not less than ten pupils for the purpose of receiving such regular instruction, and any institution or place from which a regular instruction emanates or is imparted by means of correpondence, and includes any buildings used as part of the institution for boarding, domestic and recreational purposes». (page 25)

Further the Act set out the division of responsibility within sectors of government, making secondary education the sole responsibility of the central government and primary education a joint task for central and local authorities. Revisions of the Act subsequently confirmed this arrangement. What they did not do - and the omission has been more generally to the detriment of rural areas - is to draw attention to the importance of rural development and the part that education could have in it (page 26).

However, the National Commission on Education, appointed in 1975, by the Botswana Government to review the country's education system, drew the threads together on how to proceed. Among the Commission's conclusions and recommendations were: the inadequacy of the seven-year foundation education that was being provided in the inadequate number of primary schools to prepare young people for life in the modern world and, hence and most important, the need for a new kind of junior secondary school that would meet a growing social demand for secondary education in rural Botswana. This new junior secondary school would necessitate a change in the structure of both primary and secondary education and a careful revision of curricula and examinations in the interest of relevance (page 6). It would also require specially trained teachers in the existing Primary Teacher Training Colleges or in a separate training institution, cost being the reason for not considering giving training at the post-secondary level in established universities (page 9).

The Commission's conclusions rank high among Botswana's third category measures. Taken together with its subsequent recommendations in 1979, when it was reconvened to consider particular issues including the slow pace of implementation and cost, they mark a crucial stage in educational decision-making in Botswana. The recommended changes, approved by the Government for helping to bring the school into partnership with the community in the development of rural Botswana, included:

1975 (pages 6, 7)

(i) Shortening the primary cycle from seven to six years and continuing to make available a three-year junior secondary cycle; thereafter, providing selective entry into a three-year secondary stage, in place of the current two-year course, up to school certificate level.

(ii) Establishing day junior secondary schools in most communities in the long run, either as separate schools or continuation classes of the present primary schools.

(iii) Greatly reducing the proportion of boarding students at junior secondary level through provision of day secondary schools.

(iv) Establishing junior secondary schools with lower-cost buildings, lower teacher/class ratios than the present junior secondary schools.

(v) Developing a new curriculum and a new intermediate level examination with stronger links to working life to be taken after nine years of primary and junior secondary education.

1979 (page 10)

(vi) Less generous provision of physical facilities than, for instance, those provided for the new World Bank financed schools, minimal provision for boarding facilities and cheaper construction methods.

(vii) A level of recurrent expenditure per pupil very much lower than what obtained in the existing secondary schools.

(viii) Substantial reliance on community self-help at least in the early years of the programme.

The mood that comes through these recommendations, which the Government of Botswana converted by its approval into a regulating instrument, is one of a realistic recognition of the imperative need to cut down on luxury, make a little money go as far as possible and, therefore, to draw heavily on community self-help. Such a mood was not limited to Botswana at the time. It was noticeable in many a country in the Third World. The heady atmosphere of those early days of political independence in Africa and high expectations in and beyond that continent - in Asia, Arab States and Latin America and the Caribbean - that assistance would be forthcoming from external sources for the expansion and improvement of education in accordance with regional objectives and targets were beginning to evaporate.

So hopeful had been the authorities in the regions in this regard that the Conferences of Ministers of Education of Latin America in Santiago 1962, and of Asia in Karachi 1960 before it, had proposed that the possibility should be explored of establishing an International Fund for Education to supplement bilateral and multilateral assistance in paying for the educational expansion and improvement at all levels in Latin America and at the primary level in Asia. Indeed, Karachi 1960 envisaged a brighter prospect for disarmament «thereby releasing considerable savings which would be made available for general

development expenditure in the backward areas of the world ... Programmes of compulsory primary education should receive their due share of such funds» (Report : Karachi 1960, Unesco/ED/173, page 6).

Needless to say, disarmament did not take place. Nor did the expectation of a substantial boost in aid materialize. Goodwill there was. But it did not mean that the size of external help would not continue to be shaped, in the first instance, by foreign policy considerations of donor governments and only in the second place by the needs of beneficiary countries. And yet the assumption that sizeable assistance could be expected from external sources, and the hope it generated, persisted into the late sixties and, in some cases, even into the seventies. Botswana's National Commission on Education of 1975 replaced that starry-eyed vision of the future with a mood that was more down-to-earth. The Commission linked up with the Sierra Leone Education Sector Review to mark a new phase in the evolution of educational measures.

The new phase is graphically painted in Learning to Be (Report : International Commission on the Development of Education, Unesco 1972, page 48). The picture is presented in full below representing, as it does, the root-cause of the mood and the perspectives from which many a measure in the six studies sprouted in the late sixties and after, among them the China Compulsory Education Law of 1986, the Philippine Barrio High School Charter of 1969 and the Tanzania Arusha Declaration of 1967.

> «When a country reaches the point of having to make over a considerable portion of its budget to education, and when that education yields few diplomas and even fewer productive citizens, it can no longer be content with solutions devised merely to improve the 'quality' of instruction in school or of teachers' training or even to adapt professional training to professional requirements. Such a country is compelled to tap new resources, no longer measurable in budgetary terms since - by definition - the budgetary resources have been exhausted. At this point, educational resources takes on a new meaning: from then on, the entire means of the community are made available to all its members ... All human and material means must be enlisted and optimized, the better to serve that community's ultimate aims.»

Measures studied in-depth in three countries

China

China's Education Law of 1986 was in part concerned with the structural reform of sectors of the educational system and its implications for an educational strategy embracing the three components of curriculum, organization and personnel. But before turning to it, one must mention the five stages of directed action from the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949 and a number of significant measures which preceded it (much of the information is culled from Unesco and the Central Institute of Educational Research, Peking: Universal Primary Education and its Significance for Rural Development in China, Paris 1984, pages 16-28, 39, 100, 111).

The first stage, the National Economic Rehabilitation Period 1949-1952, witnessed the centralized leadership of the Party Committee laying down the principle of developing educational work in a planned, systematic and a steady

way with schools being open to the children of peasants and workers. It was decided, then to concentrate effort:

(i) in the newly-liberated areas, on restoring and stabilizing the schools and on gradually reorganizing and reforming them; and

(ii) in the old revolutionary areas established before the founding of the New China, on consolidating the schools, raising their educational level and appropriately increasing their number.

To guide effort, the Government promulgated the Directive on the Reorganization and Development of Primary Schools by the Local People in November 1952. Under its provisions, the Government undertook to build more state primary schools to be financed and managed by the masses in response to demand. The Directive, in fact, streamlined a familiar modus operandi of local participation for more assiduous application. By the end of 1952, there were 22,000 schools and 62,000 classes at the primary level run by local people who had helped to raise the percentage of school-age children in school to 49.

The second stage covered by the First Five-Year Plan period (1953-1957) saw a further increase in primary school enrolment. Effort in the rural areas was especially encouraged to «respond fully to the masses' enthusiasm for running schools». By the end of 1957, 61.7 per cent of school age children were in school. The advance in the rural areas had been notable.

The third stage was the period of the «Great Leap Forward» and of «Readjusting, Consolidating, Strengthening and Improving the National Economy» (1958-1965). In the process the Directive on Educational Work was issued in September 1958, stipulating that in developing education for greater, faster, better and more efficient growth of the economy, effort should be made to mobilize all resources. Further the principle of integration should be applied together with diverse methods of running schools; popularization should be accompanied by the raising of standards; and over-all planning should proceed with due cognizance of local autonomy. The Directive also called for the complete elimination of illiteracy and the universalization of primary school education throughout the nation in three to five years.

Some of the targets of the Directive proved to be impracticable. Sights had to be lowered. There had to be greater realism. By the end of the stage, therefore, more measured steps were being encouraged. Primary school education, it was realized in general, had to be universalized «in a planned and enthusiastic way but in the light of the conditions in the different areas concerned. Secondary education should be developed gradually by various means. In both cases, stress should be put on improving quality and within a plan to introduce a 10-year school system of the primary and secondary levels by stages in 10 to 12 years in the course of which expansion to achieve Universal Primary Education and improvement of quality would be seen as integral parts of a single process of growth and change in primary and secondary education».

Two measures or decisions were more specific. The first was the Circular issued by the Ministry of Education in December 1962 entiled: Running a number of key full-time primary and secondary schools well. The Circular indicated that the successful operation of a number of key primary and secondary schools would

help to improve the quality of China's higher education and raise the scientific and technical level of the nation. By September of the following year, there was a total of 3,071 key primary schools in rural and urban areas of 27 provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions of the country, constituting 0.7 per cent of the total number of state-run primary schools. They were providing a network of examples which could be followed in schemes of educational expansion that were grounded in self-help.

The second measure, which came into force in 1964, sanctioned a two-level pre-university educational system (with equal emphasis on academic and vocational training). Schools of one level would have their sights fixed on the key schools as their model. Those of the second level would be firmly established on the stark reality of scarce resources, the needs of individual and social living and the growing demand for educational places. Within the latter level, a large number of simply-equipped schools were set up in the first half of 1964 in the rural areas of Shanghai Municipality, Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region and 12 provinces. They worked to a farmwork-study programme and thus blazed the trail for a new development in China's primary school education. Such schools did not have to satisfy the requirements which existing primary schools had to meet. They offered the Chinese language and mathematics only by way of academic studies in addition to farmwork. They had the advantage of being close to the children's homes.

The experiment was extended to national minority areas, such as: the countries of Hulanchabu League, Inner Mongolia, which had 3,205 schools; the Hulunbuir Grassland for the benefit of herdsmen's children, and Ningxia Hui Autonomous Region which had more than 2,000 such schools. With the vigorous expansion of the simply-equipped primary schools in the rural areas, there were some 84.7 per cent of China's school-age children in school by the end of 1965.

It is an interesting coincidence that the Simply-Equipped Primary Schools of China, numbering 840,000 in 1965 and educating 24.1 million and 744,000 respectively in lower and higher primary classes, were being established at the time C. E. Beeby was developing his thesis on «the pressure for more education than better education». Beeby concluded:

> «It is no easy business to stand before a crowd and explain that some of them should defer their claim for education of any sort for their children in order that the quality of other children's education should be improved. It is especially difficult for a man who has devoted his life to the spread of education and who, whatever his doubts, has no firm evidence that a rapid increase in numbers necessarily involved a drop in quality». (C. E. Beeby: The Quality of Education in Developing Countries, Harvard University Press 1966, pages 9-10).

The empirical evidence, in the case of the Chinese experiment based on the measure of 1964, was that the Simply-Equipped Schools provided more education in the course of supplying the necessary quality education with limited resources in order to give young people improved preparation for the life of work.

The fourth stage was the period of the «Cultural Revolution» (1966-1976). Then, the immediate aim was «to seize power from bourgeois authorities; ... the compass of action was the body of thoughts of Chairman Mao Tse-Tung» which were to be encapsulated in little red plastic-covered books. «The criterion of correctness was professed obedience to Mao». Behind this central figure was an educational experience which had helped, either positively or by default, to make him what he was.

A number of vignettes of that experience are: Mao in the primary school in his native village, Shao-shan in the Hunan Province; the secondary school in the provincial capital, Ch'ang-sha, where he came into contact with new ideas from the West, followed not only by a brief military experience which confirmed his boyhood admiration of military leaders and exploits but also by a period of groping and reflection; a teacher training instution where he acquired his first experience in political activity by helping to establish several student organizations, among them, the New People's Study Society some of whose members subsequently joined him in the Communist Party to the final Communist victory in 1949; Peking University and the May Fourth Movement of 1919 which was «to a considerable extent the fountainhead of all the changes that were to take place in China in the ensuing half century», a movement of widespread and intense student demonstrations protesting against the decision of the Paris Peace Conference to hand over former German concessions to Japan instead of returning them to China. In that Movement Mao and his fellow students soon realized that they themselves were the principal actors. And he wrote in July 1919 (the New Encyclopaedia Britannica, Volume 23, page 511).

> «The world is ours, the nation is ours, society is ours. If we do not speak, who will speak? If we do not act, who will act?»

It is not difficult to see against this background the origins of Mao's words decades later: «To rebel is justified». The students took him at his word to march, as their contemporaries were doing elsewhere for different reasons. «Few escaped their wrath». Much happened to destabilize education against a background of «debate concerning the balance between organizational leadership and mass participation, military security and economic modernization, central authority and local initiative, and Mao's revolutionary outlook and the requirements for an orderly succession» (the New Encylopaedia Britannica, Volume 16, page 158 ff).

It would seem, though, that only sporadically were the peasantry affected by the struggle and the conflict that accompanied the debate. The schools for their children, however, were affected by the uncertainties created in the course of the debate and the application of measures that flowed out of them. An example was the non-too-clearly-defined measure that surfaced after the publication in the People's Daily (Renmin Ribao) on 14 November 1968 of a letter written by a commune-run primary school teacher suggesting that all state-run primary schools should be administered by the production brigades; the state itself should discontinue, or reduce, its investment in primary school education and stop paying the salaries of teachers in rural primary schools. The teachers should work in the brigades and be paid according to workpoints. This «suggestion» was turned into a measure and put into practice in many places. The final verdict was that funds were diverted from primary education to post primary institutions and the administration of the former was seriously undermined.

The fifth and last stage before and including the Education Law of 1986, the point of departure in the China study, was the New Historical Development Period starting from 1977. With a greater sense of realism than had been known in the Period of the Great Leap Forward, China undertook the necessary readjustment, restructuring, consolidation and improvement to ensure that the development of education in the rural as well as in the urban areas of the country kept abreast of the growth of the national economy. The new mood could well be equated to the pragmatic approach adopted at the Central Committee's

plenary meeting in December 1978 and summarized in the slogan «seek truth from facts» (the New Encyclopaedia Britannica, Volume 16, page 161). There was much learning to be done if the economy was going to be effectively reformed to achieve the growth expected. How could market forces be accommodated within a planned economy? How much economic liberalization should be undertaken and at what speed? How to balance enterprise reform and public ownership? These are some of the questions that continued to be debated right up to, and beyond, the Education Law of 1986. But the need for preparing the national human resources, particularly the majority in the rural areas, for coping with whatever answers were found to the questions, continued to receive urgent attention through a number of measures.

In November 1978, a Directive was issued on the Elimination of Illiteracy. It called on local authorities to take measures to «halt illiteracy, wipe it out and raise the literacy level of those who are no longer illiterate». Specifically, it pressed for the expansion of a five-year primary school education in the country to prevent children from becoming illiterate later; it urged the reduction of the current illiteracy rate to 15 per cent or lower among the 12-24 age-group; and it underlined the need to raise literacy levels through continuing education.

A year later (6 November 1979), the Party Central Committee published a report on progress in educational expansion in the Taojiang County of Hunan Province together with instructions to all localities urging them to redouble effort by following the example of that county, which had achieved a five-year primary schooling for all school-age children by the end of 1972. This and the directive of the previous year on illiteracy served as a great spur to effort. By the early eighties, 93 per cent of school-age children were in school. The illiteracy rate had been brought down to 25 per cent.

Complementing the measures mentioned above were others which sought to ensure that what was being learnt by increasing numbers were relevant to the development needs of the rural as well as urban areas. Among them were those taken to promote spare-time peasant education and rural science and technology activities which, it was believed, would help to «bring about an early realization of a socialist modernization programme». The Compulsory Education Law of 1986 sums up, in the words of the China study, the foregoing decisions and past piecemeal legislation with regard to the popularization of education; and it demonstrates the determination to develop an educational system of uniform quality for both urban and rural areas. It is «China's educational programme for the future» (page 8).

The question of structural reform at the first two levels of education with which the Law was concerned continues to be debated within and beyond China. More so do its implications for content, techniques, methods of teaching and examinations as well as for education budgets, which are a part of the intractable issue of the transition from primary to secondary education. They include the vision of moving goal posts at which compulsory education could end, after having provided, on the one hand, the requisite minimum but adequate preparation for everybody for the life of work, and, on the other hand, a sound basis for continuing learning and teaching for a minority to enter the secondary level and go on into the third irrespective of whatever arrangements can be made to bring life-long education, in both the formal and non-formal systems, within the reach of every member of the entire population (Report: International Conference on Education, Geneva, 2-11 December 1986, pages 15-17).

Part of the thinking behind the Law was the premiss that the current educational infrastructure was simply not equipped for a sudden change from the prevailing diverse primary and lower middle structure of 6-3, 5-4 and 5-3 years to a compulsory and uniform arrangement of a six-year primary and a three-year junior middle, lower or secondary education for every child. Since the 5-3 structure was being followed in most rural areas where relatively few children, in any case, attended junior middle schools, the Law permitted it to continue «in the interim; for it would be impossible to finance, staff and equip a nation-wide nine-year 6-3 system» (page 13).

Among the major provisions of the Law, which were of special benefit to the rural areas, were (Report of China to the International Conference on Education, 40th Session, Geneva 1986, pages 6-9):

(i) the degree of flexibility with which local authorities were permitted «to work out measures» for ultimately achieving the goals of the Law, «in accordance with their local conditions in economic and cultural development»;

(ii) the authority the Law vested in approved educational agencies to prohibit the employment of school-age children, impose fines on, or order the closure of, businesses concerned where necessary;

(iii) the stipulation that «no tuition fees will be charged for students receiving compulsory education and those from poor families will receive state grant-in-aid»; and

(iv) the power vested in the State Council and local people's governments, at various levels, «to guarantee the collection of enough funds for operation and capital construction needed for carrying out compulsory education».

In countries where the majority of the population live in the rural areas and tend, in practice, to be the periphery rather than the centre-piece of a nation's development strategy, representations for dealing with the different aspects of the problem of transition have a way of taking their cue from experience in urban centres, which have a decidedly recognizable head-start in educational provision and facilities. The rural areas begin from several paces behind whenever measures are being considered for an entire country; they are relegated to the receiving end, not of the benefits of the measures as such but of modifications in practice of the measures. In this regard, the Law of Compulsory Education of the People's Republic of China passed at the Fourth Session of the Sixth National People's Congress in April 1986, would seem to have looked at the rural areas as the centre-piece or, at least, as part of one piece and not just the periphery.

The Philippines

The Philippines study is a fluent illustration of pre-independence and immediate post-independence measures which can be described as the rule of which the China Education Law was the exception as far as the rural areas are concerned. The Philippine rural areas, if considered at all, were very much of a periphery, from the Educational Decree of 1863 which was passed during the Spanish regime, through three Educational Acts of 1901, 1917 and 1923 under the American regime and three other measures enacted in 1937 and 1940 (2) during and after the Commonwealth period to the post-independence legislation of 1953.

The country's post-Independence Act of 1953 was designed, in part, to «correct the ill-effects of the Education Act of 1940». The earlier Act had permitted shifts, or the holding of two or more complete sessions a day, in order to increase enrolment. It had also reduced the length of Basic Education from 4-3 to 4-2 years in the interest of quantity, no matter what happened to quality. The post-Independence Elementary Education Act of 1953 not only restored the double session and the seventh year in Basic Education it also reiterated the notion of compulsory attendance.

However, the rural areas of the Philippines hardly benefitted from the corrective measures. For along with the insistence on compulsory attendance in primary schools, the 1953 Act repeated the exemptions from compulsory attendance granted by the previous Act on account, among others, of distance between home and school and «the economic condition of the child's parents under which the child cannot afford to continue in school». Indeed, it granted two more exemptions in cases where the child (pages 6,8):

> «is being regularly instructed by his parent or guardian or private tutor, under conditions that will be prescribed by the Secretary of Education»; or
>
> «cannot be accommodated because of shortage of places».

The 1953 Act would seem to have made no significant difference to rural Philippines. «It could not be implemented in places where accommodation continued to be a problem»; such were the rural areas. «Only in exclusive private schools was the restoration of Grade VII implemented»; and these were not in remote country places. Two subsequent Acts, the State Scholarship Law of 1964 and the Special Fund Act of 1968, were equally sterile as far as the rural areas were concerned, although they injected a little more money into the educational system and brought about some improvement in quality.

Meanwhile, in the regional setting, the Philippines had shared in the exchange of views at three Regional Conferences of Asian Ministers of Education at Karachi 1960, Tokyo 1962 and Bangkok 1965. These conferences had both contributed to, and derived inspiration from, a change of mood and perspective from the global to the national which was taking place in the Philippines and other countries of the region; it was the kind of change that led, for example, in Sierra Leone and Botswana, to in-depth reviews and surveys of national systems of education. Concurrently, educational thought had moved progressively from an emphasis on free and compulsory education of a minimum of seven years' duration, the main preoccupation at Karachi 1960, to a concern for a balanced development of all three levels of education, the quality as well as the quantity of which, in both urban and rural areas, would have to be planned - the thrust at Bangkok 1965 (Unesco: An Asian Model of Educational Development 1966, pages 9, 85).

The Philippines' in-depth study was undertaken by the Presidential Commission established in 1969 to survey the state of education and its relevance to development goals and to formulate guidelines for developing education (World Bank: Education, Sector Policy Paper 1980, page 21). Although the report of the Commission - Education for National Development: New Patterns, New Directions published in 1970 - did not lead to any specific measures of immediate benefit to the expansion and improvement of education in the countryside as its counterparts in Sierra Leone and Botswana were to do, it

stimulated much thought about the subject and thereby helped the cause of a measure that directly affected the lives of the peasantry in the so-called barrios, the smallest political units of the Philippines.

This measure was contained in The Barrio High School Charter which was passed by a resolution of the Sixth Congress of the Republic of the Philippines on 4 August 1969. Describing second level education as the continuing «bottleneck and weakest link of the school system», it pointed to «a few barrio high schools» which had been «established on an experimental basis». Having made a successful beginning, they had been followed by others in different parts of the country. The experiment needed to be guided and shaped for entering the phase of a nation-wide operational endeavour for the expansion of secondary education. The Charter provided the necessary framework:

> «to make possible equal opportunities for high school education for all the children of all the people of the Philippines regardless of the place of birth or of the economic condition of their parents» (P. T. Orata: Self-help Barrio High Schools, SEAMEO Regional Innotech Centre, 1972).

As charged by the Charter, the Secretary of Education issued the Rules and Regulations for implementing the measure with effect from 1 July 1970. He introduced them with a brief guide to an understanding of the declared policy. The policy, he reiterated, had particular reference to the youth residing in the barrios. Because of their distance from the nearest secondary school, such youth had to make more than ordinary effort in order to avail themselves of the opportunity for secondary education. He was directing attention to a fact which often went unnoticed: rural youth in general spent more in time, money and energy, than their counterparts in urban centres, for the same educational opportunity.

Establishing a high school in their own barrio would bring «secondary education within the reach of the youth in the rural areas who otherwise would have been satisfied with the meagre education acquired». The opportunity so provided would raise their level from elementary education, open wider the door for their «increased and more enlightened involvement in the rural areas not only for individual self-fulfilment but also for making possible their direct participation in the socio-economic progress of their respective communities». The Secretary of Education added:

> «The philosophy that permeates the present law is anchored to the doctrine of self-help based on the principle that progress can best be attained if people learn to help themselves».

Every opportunity was therefore being afforded the barrio citizens to organize and operate their barrio schools themselves with the minimum of financial assistance from the Government (P. T. Orata: Self-Help Barrio High Schools, SEAMEO Regional Innotech Centre 1972, pages 211-221).

Subsequent measures like the Educational Development Decree of 1972 and the provisions for education under the 1986 Constitution of the Republic of the Philippines were of a more general application than the Barrio High School Charter, although they made suitable references to agricultural education and its relevance to rural development. Together with their antecedents, they brought into existence a College of Agriculture and a network of farm schools,

residential agricultural high schools and extension services. The verdict of the Philippine study, though, is not one of unqualified appreciation of the help they have been to the rural areas. Three excerpts illustrate the point:

(i) One problem experienced in the College of Agriculture was that«practically all of its graduates, instead of returning to the farm, go into the service of the Bureau of Agriculture or become teachers of elementary science in the high schools ... Going back to the farm means returning to antiquated methods where suggestions for improvement would be viewed with little favour ...» (page 41).

(ii) «Success of extension services will depend to a large extent on the solution of problems of organization, programming, and financing of the services. A careful study of these problems is now being made by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports ... with a view to extending the benefits of the agricultural schools to the remotest parts of the country» (page 52).

(iii) «It is ironical ... that despite the provision for intensified agricultural education, neither production in the country nor the quality of rural life has markedly improved although ... successful efforts have been made here and there. An analysis of the situation will show that the establishment of farm or agricultural schools is not enough» (page 60) nor, indeed, are the measures which establish them.

It is to the Barrio High School Charter and the experiments that preceded it, however, that one must turn for an example of an educational legislative measure which has had an unquestionable impact on the development of the rural areas in the Philippines from the point of view of both extensiveness and quality. Four features distinguish the Charter, the Rules and Regulations and other directives which followed it from many an educational measure. First, for once, an educational measure was shaped by an obvious, though frequently ignored, lack among the majority of the people rather than the deficiencies in provision of education for the minority which, if put right, would hopefully trickle down and across to pockets within the majority. Secondly, the measure set out to draw fully upon local human resources with a confidence that found justification, in spite of numerous problems and handicaps, in the acknowledgement of «the co-operation of the parents and leaders - national and local - not to mention the whole-hearted enthusiasm of the students who, in every barrio, took up the challenge of the Charter to work on all kinds of jobs, including the most menial ones, in order to earn their tuition fees, the rental of their books, and their school expenses» (P. T. Orata: Self-help Barrio Schools, SEAMEO Regional Innotech Centre 1972, page xv). In a society where student militancy at the next level of education was being experienced at its most intensive, as elsewhere (F. M. Bunge: Philippines, A Country Study, Area Handbook Series, U.S. Government Printing Office 1984, page 249) such meaningful learning activities were a welcome positive contribution to stability.

Thirdly, the Charter sought to create conditions in which an experiment already on the ground could be developed into a guided operational enterprise to meet an identified national need. Lastly, the experiment had been born in

circumstances of great hardship in the aftermath of World War II, in the course of which the country had suffered much devastation from the bombardment of 8 December 1941 and subsequent events. Its beginnings were, on the one hand, in «a community high school with 135 students in a roofless church with no books, pencils or paper or money to pay teachers' salaries». They were rooted, on the other hand, in a determination «to avoid the all too common practice in the Philippines and perhaps elsewhere as well, of starting with a recital of a long list of problems and difficulties, after which everybody is discouraged and no-one would dare make a start» (P. T. Orata: Self-help Barrio High Schools, SEAMEO Regional Innotech Centre 1972, pages 7, 13).

Recognizing the potential in a modest beginning with four barrio high schools in 1964, which had grown into over a thousand by 1969, the Charter mapped out ground for further growth and continuing improvement into 1,800 schools and an enrolment of 250,000 by mid-1971. It regularized the use for secondary education of available primary school buildings before and after the usual school hours or during them when rooms were free in villages too small or too isolated to warrant a government-supported high school. The basic teaching was done by high school teachers from elsewhere on a spare-time basis: by elementary school teachers with special training or interests, or by members of the community with appropriate skills. Payment of honoraria for part-time teaching was determined in accordance with Rules and Regulations promulgated by the Secretary of Education.

Section 10 of the Charter, and relevant paragraphs of the Secretary of Education's Rules and Regulations that followed, streamlined the evolving curriculum in the growing number of barrio high schools. They endorsed the adoption of an integrated curriculum consisting of academic and vocational subjects, the proportion thereof depending in the first place, on the needs and conditions of the community and, in the second place, «upon the desire and the interest of the students to learn skills necessary for possible employment or for self-established enterprises provided that the vocational course in each curriculum year shall be terminal» (P. T. Orata: Self-help Barrio High Schools, SEAMEO Regional Centre for Educational Innovation and Technology, pages 208, 219).

The barrio high school curriculum came to include many practical subjects. As a part of his school work, each child undertook a money-making project which required one or more manual, agricultural or commercial skills. He carried it through with the support, advice and instruction from teachers, employers and other members of the community. Planning, accounting, report-writing and other activities were woven into the academic components of the life of the school. Wages earned in carrying out the project, or profits realized after loans were repaid, were used to pay for tuition and other school expenses. In case the funds so raised were not sufficient, the parents, who underwrote the projects in contracts signed by the children together with school authorities and themselves, made up the deficits.

Using these unique innovative devices, the barrio high schools were almost self-supporting. However, because of the practical training and the time spent on projects, pupils devoted less class-time to academic work than was common in the traditional high schools. «Despite this and the fact that many of these children came from poor backgrounds, average scores obtained by many barrio high schools in national examinations exceeded national averages. The proportion of children going on to technical training was remarkable». It was

with this level of achievement in mind that the following could be written as testimony to the measure of adequacy achieved by many a barrio high school both as a preparation for the further education of some and as providing a terminal education for others.

> «Every student may take both the college preparatory and the vocational courses. Those who succeed in the college preparatory courses may go to college or university; those who fail will be better prepared for life than their counterparts in regular high schools who are not fit for college nor well prepared for life» (P. T. Orata: Self-help Barrio High Schools, SEAMEO Regional Innotech Centre 1972, pp. VII, 280, 259).

It is to the Barrio High School Charter also that one turns for a unique example of the crystalization, in an educational measure, of the principal features of a movement in education whose beginnings are incontrovertibly traceable to one dedicated individual, Pedro T. Orata. He could look back not only to a special consultancy to the Secretary of Education of his country; twelve years of service as a staff member of Unesco; a professorship at his alma mater, the Ohio State University of the United States of America to which he travelled on a sister's savings for the opportunity of further studies, paying for them by working in a railroad gang and washing dishes, and finally with partial support from the Philippine Government. He could also look back to the days in the Philippines when «he walked barefooted over the rice paddies as a poor farmer's son attending the barrio elementary school in Pangasinan where he was born in 1899». In August 1971, his contribution was acknowledged in the presentation to him of the Magsaysay Award.

The concluding paragraph of the citation accompanying the award sums up what education for development in rural areas is all about. It is quoted below (P. T. Orata: Self-help Barrio High Schools, SEAMEO Regional Centre for Education Innovation and Technology, 1972, p. xi):

> «Although establishment of barrio high schools alone is no panacea for our educational needs, it is a vital and positive move. Aware that a traditional society needs time for change, Orata has insisted that rural people want and are entitled to equal opportunities for schooling with those in the cities, while urging that the national curriculum be shaped more realistically to Filipino needs. Toward this goal of an educated and informed citizenry he continues to persevere with patience and informed enthusiasm».

Tanzania

For Pedro T. Orata, read Julius K. Nyerere and you have, at the level of a Head of State, the enthusiasm of a dedicated individual in a vital and positive mood, through the Arusha Declaration of 1967, to promote the rearing of an educated and informed citizenry in the nation in general and its rural areas in particular. There is one major difference, though. The measure to which Orata's work led was a turning point in education with implications for the political life of the Philippines. The Arusha Declaration marked a turning point in Tanzanian politics with implications for education; hence the need to sketch in much of the background which we do below:

Before Arusha, several measures had tried to correct the inadequacies of the Tanzanian educational system. Among the measures were:

(i) The Educational Act on Non-racial Education (1961) which aimed at ensuring accessibility to all educational institutions without regard to race, creed, sex or physiological condition (page 3).

(ii) The abolition in 1964 of secondary school fees which had been «a big burden to some parents in rural areas» (page 5).

(iii) The language policy of 1964 declaring Swahili as the national language, which helped to remove language barriers among children (BERC BULLETIN No. 16, November 1987, p. 21).

(iv) Provisions in the First Five-Year Development Plan, 1964-1969, which sought to integrate the formal and non-formal sectors of education, thereby making it possible for primary schools to be used as adult or community centres and their teachers to provide opportunities for developing skills of literacy and science and technology in rural areas (page 7).

But, however helpful these adjustment measures were, «because of financial constraints and the over-riding priority to expand secondary and higher education» in order to meet urgent post-independence need for high-level manpower, «it was not possible to have any significant expansion of primary education» (page 8), let alone give deserving attention to the rural areas and their majority share of the population.

The Arusha Declaration, which was adopted on 29 January 1967 by the National Executive Committee of the Ruling Political Party, went beyond corrective measures. It enunciated a policy which became the basis for legislative, administrative and financial directives of the future. Tacked on to it, as a sort of Appendix, was a new code of conduct for leaders of Government and of the Ruling Party, TANU (the Tanganyika African National Union). Central to its purposes was the thought that «a poor man does not use money as a weapon» (J. K. Nyerere: Freedom and Socialism OUP 1968, p. 235).

In March of that year, President Nyerere issued the first of his post-Arusha policy statements under the title: Education for Self-Reliance. In it, he analysed the education system and the attitudes which had gone to shape it. He called for another look «at the justification for a poor society like Tanzania spending almost 20 per cent of its Government revenues on providing education for its children and young people» and a consideration of «what that education should be doing» (J. K. Nyerere: Freedom and Socialism OUP 1968, p. 267). He went on to demand an educational revolution, «a re-casting of the system in the light of Tanzania's needs and social objectives».

Working parties involving teachers and educational administrators were set up to examine ways and means of implementing the new ideas. At the same time, many schools in the country - and particularly the secondary schools - began the work of opening farms, establishing workshops, and undertaking «nation-building tasks», mindful of the fact that the nation in the making was predominately rural (J. K. Nyerere: Freedom and Socialism, OUP 1968, p. 267). The Faculty of Education of the University College of Dar-es-Salaam used Education for Self-Reliance in the study of the principles of education. It hosted a nation-wide conference on the theme of Education for Self-reliance

which was attended by Regional Education Officers, heads of secondary schools, principals of teachers' colleges and officials of the Ministry of Education from 10 to 14 April 1967. (M. J. Kinunda: The Tanzanian Primary School Reform, IIEP/S56/20A, 19 November 1979, p.10.)

After 1967, serious efforts were made to propogate the ideals of the Arusha Declaration and to implement the policy of Education for Self-reliance. «Primary and adult education received special priority, whereas secondary and post-secondary education continued to be offered only to the extent justified by manpower requirements necessary for achieving self-sufficiency at all skill levels by 1980» (M. J. Kinunda: The Tanzanian Primary School Reform, IIEP/S56/20A, 19 November 1979, p.6). Inevitably, educational measures were beamed on the rural majority, guided by such measures as:

(i) the National Education Act of 1978 which made all school attendance compulsory, and

(ii) the following directive in Education for Self-reliance:

> «We should determine the type of things taught in the primary schools by the things which the boy or the girl ought to know - that is the skills he ought to acquire and the values he ought to cherish if he, or she, is to live happily and well in a socialist and predominantly rural society and to contribute to the improvement of life there. Our sights must be on the majority; it is they we must be aiming at in the curriculum and syllabus» (J. K. Nyerere: Freedom and Socialism, OUP, 1968, p. 282).

The task of effecting the necessary reform in primary schools and of training teachers to facilitate the requisite linking of the school to the life of rural communities was spearheaded through a pilot project at Kwamsisi Village in 1971 with the assistance of Unesco and UNICEF. A broad-based and flexible curriculum was worked out in four areas, comprising Literacy and Numeracy; Political Education; Self-help and Cultural Activities and Community Studies. Of particular interest was the area of Political Education, which outstripped what one would normally expect to find in citizenship studies in primary schools. It included:

(i) the child's relationship with, and obligation to, his family, village and society from a socialist point of view;

(ii) subject-matter like structure and function of the Ruling Party, Tanzania's socialist and self-reliance philosophy; and

(iii) the working of government.

By mid-1979, the project had been extended to cover 35 villages linked with teachers' colleges. A decision had been taken to apply the experience acquired to the rest of the nation, beginning with two regions - Dodoma and Singida - during the 1980/1981 period (page 11; M. J. Kinunda: The Tanzanian Primary School Reform, IIEP/S56/20A, 19 November 1979, pp. 12-15).

If measures behind the provision of education on the Kwamsisi model stressed the school in Community-School relationships, others put the accent on adults in that integrated relationship. Such were:

(i) the proclamation of the year 1970 as the Adult Education Year, using a UNDP/Unesco supported Functional Literacy Project (which began at Mwanza in January 1968) as the springboard «to help adults to acquire the necessary skills and attitudes for effective participation in national development» (page 10);

(ii) the launching of mass campaigns which employed the mechanisms available in villages and wards for planning, executing, monitoring and evaluating activities to promote understanding of the ways and means of improving the quality of life (pages 12-14);

(iii) the conversion of the Institute of Adult Education from a Department of the University of Dar-es-Salaam into a parastatal by Act No. 12 of 1975 with the function of organizing adult education activities and applying such methods as mass campaigns, seminars, research, and teaching up to diploma level while producing post-literate materials and running evening classes in all the regions (page 15); and

(iv) the provisions of the Second Five-Year Development Plan, 1969-1974, which stressed Government's aim, «in line with the Arusha Declaration» to improve «the standard of living of the rural population», indicating that «less will be available for improving the conditions of the urban population» (page 16).

The inspiration behind these and other measures, which initiated or strengthened educational activities in order to enable adults to play an effective role in an integrated community-school relationship, came mainly from the second post-Arusha directive. It was embodied in Socialism and Rural Development, which President Nyerere issued in September 1967.

Socialism and Rural Development called for the establishment of Ujamaa or Co-operative Villages in which people lived together and worked together for the good of all, as Nyerere understood to be the case in traditional African society. In this society, according to him, individual and social living was rooted in a widespread recognition of the principle that:

(i) all members of the family had a place and rights and were mutually involved in one another within and beyond it;

(ii) «whatever one person had in the way of basic necessities, they all had» and that existing inequalities should be tempered «by comparable family or social responsibilities» and prevented from becoming «gross and offensive to the social equality which was at the basis of the communal life»; and

(iii) «everyone had an obligation to work».

The society had two faults, the inferior status of women and poverty. Otherwise, life was «democratic, egalitarian, co-operative and non-competitive and was the obvious antidote to colonial capitalism» (J. K. Nyerere: Freedom and Socialism, OUP 1968, pp. 37-39 ; J. Cameron: Traditional and Western Education in Mainlaind Tanzania in Conflict and Harmony in Tropical Africa, London 1975, pp. 351 ff).

Socialism and Rural Development provided a second side to complete a triangle of ideas of which Education for Self-reliance constituted the first side and the Arusha Declaration the base. Within that triangle could be found the draft, as it were, of Nyerere's brand of socialism and his version of African traditional society and values on which he based a number of sweeping educational proposals. He expanded the draft in later speeches and pamphlets and so provided a body of concepts on which many a measure was subsequently built. It should be stated, though, that in the process, education under German and British colonial regimes was given a short shrift. The considerable part played by Tanzanians themselves in shaping it was hardly mentioned. Islamic contribution was barely noticed. Moreover, the picture painted of African society was both idealistic and incomplete.

The pre-Arusha system of education which the triangle of ideas was so ready to condemn was as much a Tanzanian effort as it was formerly German and subsequently British. Particularly was this the case during and after the First World War, when Tanzanians paid for and supported a much bigger sector of it than the colonial government or missionaries were running:

> «Not only did they participate actively in educational administration. They influenced the curriculum. Nowhere was this more obvious than in their reactions to the attempts of the colonial administration to give education an agricultural bias and to make it more relevant to rural life ... The adaptation of education to local society ... was suspect because it was construed as the watering down for African consumption of the mixture which gave the Europeans their superiority». (J. Cameron: Traditional and Western Education in Mainland Tanzania in Conflict and Harmony in Education in Tropical Africa, London 1975, p. 359).

Equally significant was the contribution of Islamic education. There were some 700 Koranic schools in mainland Tanzania in 1924.

One of the lasting results of the three cornered relationship of Europe, Africa and Arabia, in spite of innumerable conflicts, was the continuing construction of Swahili into an instrument that was ready at hand for use as a national language at independence. A language developed primarily in relation to the demands of trade by people of Bantu and Arabic extraction, Swahili had the advantage of not being identified with a particular tribe (I. C. Parker: Ideological and Economic Development in Tanzania in African Studies Review, Vol. XV, No. 1, April 1972, p.55).

It was no mean achievement for the German colonial administration, in the course of running the country as a protectorate from 1885 to 1914, to have made it «possible to communicate in writing with every Akida (official of Arab or Bantu origin) and village headman and, in turn, to receive from him reports written in Swahili» (Phelps-Stokes Commission Report: Education in East Africa, Phelps-Stokes Fund 1924, p. 178). Nor is the fact insignificant that the British colonial administration of the country, first, as a mandate and, second, as a Trust Territory, should have encouraged the use of Swahili to the point when it could be the medium through which «the most important element» of the message of the triangle of ideas, «the part dealing with self-reliance» was originally communicated in President Nyerere's pamphlet on TANU in 1962 (W. E. Smith: Nyerere of Tanzania, London 1973, p. 175).

Selection there had to be for the triangle of ideas on which many a measure was going to be based. But some of it led to serious omissions. It also resulted in an oversimplification of educational history as the foundations were being laid for whatever measures were deemed to be necessary for the expansion and improvement of education for its task of nation-building in general and of helping to develop the rural areas in particular.

A similar simplification would appear to have occurred as African traditional society and its values were studied for what they had to offer for the building of the new nation. In the first place, the very complex equation of the traditional and the modern, which was forming in Tanzania, was simplistically presented with little or no cognizance of factors which would not go away. One can mention, for example, the merits and demerits of four centuries of Islamic influences which could be considered as «traditional» for certain groups without diminishing the importance of their exotic origin; the strength they brought here, and the erosion they caused there, within the hierarchy of traditional values. In the second place, certain factors in the equation got into it because gaze had fallen on restricted areas of the African traditional life. Research into its potentialities and limitations had been less thorough than it might have been. A somewhat roseate view and certainly an incomplete picture had consequently emerged, ignoring the fact that the indigenous African way of life could be as nasty and brutish as some of the vestiges of colonial rule. The executants of the policy that was partly built upon it saw less and appreciated fewer details. They showed more zeal to act quickly and demonstrate their diligence. In some instances, action moved farther and farther away from the indigenous in method and techniques as well as content. Particularly was this the case in the implementation of the villagization programme, designed to establish Ujamaa village communities on the pattern of the «happy, co-operative villages of the past». The factor of indigenous techniques of patiently teasing out a modus operandi was nowhere in evidence between August and November 1974 when force was used to herd reluctant people into collectivities.

> «It was as if a tidal wave had washed over the country, with millions of people being moved in a dictatorial manner, sometimes overnight, on to waste land that they were expected to turn into villages and fields. In many places the army was called in to bring anyone who was reluctant to heel and move them manu militari (R. Dumont and M. Mottin: Stranglehold on Africa, London, 1983, quoting S. Urfer, Une Afrique Socialiste: La Tanzanie, Paris Editions Sociales 1976).

In the third place, some of the language used to indicate lines of advance into the future was as remote from African proverbs, folklore and oral literature as it was close to that of present-day revolutionaries and President Nyerere's brand of socialism. It included sentences like:

> The way to build and maintain socialism is to ensure that the major means of production are under the control and ownership of the peasants and workers themselves through their Government and Co-operatives.

> It is our weakness that has led to our being oppressed, exploited and disregarded. We now intend to bring about a revolution which will ensure that we are never again the victims of these things.

If every individual is self-reliant the ten-house cell will be self-reliant; if all cells are self-reliant the whole ward will be self-reliant; and if the wards are self-reliant the District will be self-reliant. If the Districts are self-reliant then the Region is self-reliant, and if the Regions are self-reliant, then the whole Nation is self-reliant and this is our aim.

Our agricultural organization would be predominantly that of co-operative living and working for the good of all. This means that most of our farming would be done by groups of people who live as a community and work as a community. They would live together in a village; they would farm together; market together, and undertake the provision of local services and small local requirements as a community.

The National Executive Committee, meeting in the Community Centre at Arusha from 26 January 1967 to 29 January 1967, resolves:

> Every TANU and Government leader must be either a peasant or a worker, and should in no way be associated with the practices of capitalism or feudalism. For the purposes of this resolution the term «leader» should comprise the following: Members of the TANU National Executive Committee; Members of Parliament; senior officials of Organizations affiliated to TANU; senior officials of para-statal organizations; all those appointed or elected under any clause of the TANU Constitution; councillors; and civil servants in the high and middle cadres.

We have not yet produced systematic training for our leaders; it is necessary that TANU Headquarters should now prepare a programme of training for all leaders - from the national level to the ten-house cell level - so that every one of them understands our political and economic policies.

By the end of 1968, the ideas which had spawned such sentences and inspired certain measures to guide educational action had built up an ideology which was said to be «clear, overwhelmingly accepted by the masses and providing a point of reference to all ensuing policies» (M. J. Kinunda: The Tanzanian Primary School Reform, IIEP/S56/20A, 19 November 1979, p.25). The idealogy had five characteristics. First, it set before the Tanzanian people a vision of an innovative experiment in education of the young and old for nation-building, which would be ready to capitalize on opportunity and to take risks in order to bring about change. Secondly, it carried within it a mythology of a noble past upon which the present could profitably draw. Thirdly, it offered a programme of action in very concrete terms. Fourthly, it called to service a cadre of animators for the dissemination of its basic ideas. Lastly, through selective training and a variety of incentives, including the powerful one of opportunity to demonstrate devotion and commitment to a cause, it helped to produce committed leaders to direct the implementation of the programme. With these at the back of his mind, President Nyerere wrote: «We have defined our policies in education, in rural development, and have listed our expectations of leadership» (J. K. Nyerere: Freedom and Socialism, OUP, 1968, p. 32). Moreover, an organization with a pyramidal structure of leaders from the President and the Party Executive at the top, down through personnel in leadership positions at various levels to the Chairman of the ten-house cell, had been put in place.

The package of ideas, ideology and organization was not just the result of philosophising by the leader of a political party in power faced with a number of paradoxes. There was behind them what Nyerere's entire educational experience had made of him. This experience included his indigenous education in a small tribe in the interior of Tanzania; the Catholic primary school at Musoma; the Government central school at Tabora; Makerere College where he helped to form a branch of the Tanganyika African Association «as a club for studying political issues»; Edinburgh University where he «read a great deal», had «plenty of time to think», and his «ideas of politics were formed completely». It was «his own evolution, but it was complete» (W. E. Smith: Nyerere of Tanzania, London 1973, pp. 45-50).

The package had behind it a number of prodding motivations as well. Among them was the determination not to ignore the lessons to be learnt from the evolving contemporary history of international realtions on the one hand and of black Africa on the other. The former confirmed Nyerere in his bid for self-reliance. The latter urged on him the wisdom of a code of conduct for the rearing and guidance of an uncorrupted and incorruptable leadership. Further, it was a response to a series of crises.

First among the nudging factors behind the package was the loss, by 1966, of most of the foreign aid Tanzania had been receiving from Britain, the Federal Republic of Germany and the United States of Amercia as a result of a number of foreign policy incidents. These incidents included the break in diplomatic relations with the United Kingdom over the unilateral declaration of independence by Rhodesia (1965); Tanzania's even-handed approach to the Democratic Republic of Germany as well as the Federal Republic of Germany in their different interpretations of their role in the new nation being born out of Tanganyika and Zanzibar; and the growing Chinese presence in the country (W. E. Smith: Nyerere of Tanzania, London 1973, pp. 148, 158, 164, 165). Nyerere was greatly distressed by the overthrow of President Nkrumah of Ghana by the military, which he viewed as a defeat for the cause against Rhodesia and white South Africa; but he was known to have said that Nkrumah made «the mistake of allowing corruption» and corruption «overwhelmed him». Secondly what better signal could there have been to the need for a code of conduct that would initiate the necessary checks and balances for leaders of the African political experiment!

The pre-Arusha crises which, in part, drew a response from the Declaration have been listed elsewhere. Two are mentioned below.

President Nkrumah was overthrown on 12 January 1966. Eight days afterwards, on 20 January, the Tanzanian army mutineed; and President Nyerere had to go into hiding. What probably disturbed him most of all was, in his own words, «the double shame - shame at being let down by our own men, and shame at having to call in the British» to put down the revolt. A second crisis, even more disturbing was the march by the students of the University College of Dar-es-Salaam in October 1966 in protest against the introduction of national service as part of directed employment. The students had been all for the scheme in principle. They had hoped, however, that it would not apply to themselves; they would be left alone to get on with their studies and their employment after them. Their non-exemption provided them with their reason for making cause with angry youth on many a university campus in the mid-sixties, who were up in arms against the established order and felt called upon to help change it. The issue struck at the very foundations of a self-reliant society.

It was resolved through rustication of some 300 students and subsequent measures to involve them fully in the Party apparatus. Still, the omens called for caution: the President and Party Executive Committee needed to have the political tide with them.

On 3 January of the new year after these and several more happenings, Nyerere set off on his longest tour since independence of the most vulnerable parts of his country, the rural areas. A four-week journey in the interior took him to eight of mainland Tanzania's seventeen regions and ended with a three-day meeting of the TANU National Executive Committee in Arusha. There he announced the completion of the design of the base of the triangle of ideas, the Arusha Declaration. There began the construction of the ideology and the pyramidal machinery of leadership with which to shape the various components of a development strategy including the education to produce the necessary informed and, above all, co-operative citizenry.

A decade after this turning point in the political history of Tanzania and concomitant changes in educational ideas, «the public was sceptical regarding some aspects of primary and secondary school education ... It was concerned about the literacy skills of children at the end of primary schooling and the ability to speak English of those who completed secondary education. For the public, these were among indicators of falling standards of education in Tanzania. Moreover, there was the general inability of most youths to be self-employed. Nor were they willing to remain in the rural areas» (page 21).

A still later assessment (circa 1986) of the impact of Education for Self-reliance can hardly be said to be enthusiastic. Without doubt, a sensitization of the school system had been achieved, particularly of pupils and teachers of secondary schools to the tenets of socialist living and, at least theoretically, to the obligations of the system. However, the passage of the philosophy-policy from theory to practice had not always and everywhere been easy, smooth, appropriate or even economical. While some schools immediately undertook farming and other projects, others engaged in too many things which had no relationship with normal teaching-learning processes and often «at the expense of wider knowledge scope». In other cases, self-reliance activities remained extra-curricular activities with no professional respect or academic rewards within the over-all education system. The final verdict would seem to be that «while in some important respects the Tanzanian education system under Education for Self-reliance had been crowned with practical and productive achievements, in others it evidently suffered from academic and intellectual under-achievement» (A. Ishumi: Innovation for the Improvement of Education Systems and Programmes, NEIDA 1986, p.12).

Some of these points had, of course, been considered by a Presidential Commission appointed in November 1980 to review education in Tanzania and make recommendations to facilitate over-all education to the year 2000. The Commission noted that skills and attitudes appropriate and relevant to the national policies that had come out of the triangle of ideas on Socialism and self-reliance were of the utmost importance in education. Some of the recommendations were incorporated in the Third Five-Year Development Plan, 1981-1986.

President Nyerere himself, the principal architect of the basis of thought and action in education and its emphasis on the rural areas has met criticism, both from outside and within Tanzania, with measured arguments indicating the need for more time to gauge the results of the measures that were taken after

Arusha. Every year since independence has been difficult, he stated. And that difficulty was «inherent in trying to develop a country out of extreme poverty». Moreover, there had been the floods of 1979, followed by the drought of 1980 while the military operations mounted to remove Idi Amin from the control of Uganda had cost a huge amount estimated to be a million pounds a day, while it lasted, at a time the cost of oil was consuming half of Tanzania's foreign exchange earnings.

Nevertheless, it could be said, in response to attacks on the policies in general and measures which came out of the triangle of ideas, in particular that:

> The ratio between the highest and lowest Government salaries has been reduced to one to six - when before it was one to 500 ... Tanzania's rural policies are attacked; but they have benefitted the rural population, and 85 per cent of Tanzania's population is rural. Forty per cent of Tanzanian villages now have running water, 35 per cent have a dispensary and 74 per cent have a shop ... Tanzania is not complacent nor does it reject constructive criticism by those working for the elimination and injustice in the world. (The Listener, London, 28 August 1980, p. 270)

To these must be added the major strides made in education including turning the rural population from being one of the lowest in literacy in 1960 in Africa to one of the highest in 1985. Indeed, the illiteracy rate in the entire country had fallen from 90.5% in 1962 to 53.7% in 1978 (Unesco estimates and National Census figures).

Corresponding financial measures led to an increase in the proportion of total education budget to the national budget in the 1985/1986 period because of the emphasis being put on primary education very much to the benefit of the rural areas. The percentage for the period was 19 compared to 14.6 of each of the previous two years. Further, between 1984/1985 and 1985/1986, the budget for primary education increased by 10 per cent. Primary and adult education together continued to consume over 50 per cent of the total education budget to the benefit of the rural areas. The table below (Report to the IBE Conference on Education, 40th Session, Geneva, 1986, p.7) presents the full picture.

The Distribution of the Education Budget (in Million Tshs.) by Different Levels

Year	Total Education Budget	Administration & General	Primary Education	Adult Education	Secondary Education	Teacher Training	Higher & Technical	University
1983/84	2721.692 (100.00%)	245.909 (9.03%)	1256.410 (46.16%)	182.420 (6.70%)	384.804 (14.14%)	176.309 (6.48%)	100.363 (3.69%)	375.477 (13.80%)
1984/85	3317.309 (100.00%)	239.946 (7.23%)	1506.470 (45.42%)	159.410 (4.81%)	512.389 (15.44%)	270.823 (8.16%)	136.814 (4.12%)	491.457 (14.82%)
1985/86	4652.542 (100.00%)	289.453 (6.23%)	2553.132 (54.87%)	173.890 (3.74%)	555.294 (11.93%)	271.514 (5.83%)	141.064 (3.04%)	668.195 (14.36%)

Source: Public Expenditure – Consolidated Fund Services and Supply Votes(Ministerial and Reginonal) and Development Budgets as Passed by the National Assembly 1984/85 and 1985/86

Note: Figures in brackets are percentages of the total annual education budget

One problem remained unresolved: how to secure the right mix out of the considerable powers of social control, which the triangle of ideas and ensuing action put into the hands of leadership within the pyramidal structure it brought into existence, and an informed participation at all levels by those being led on the one hand and unadulterated accountability by the leadership on the other hand. Such a desirable result is difficult to obtain in any political system. It is much more difficult in a centralized system within a sprawling extensive country like Tanzania. The following story best illustrates the point:

> Once a regional commissioner locked up a European for a fortnight, and we didn't know about it until we received a complaint from an Ambassador. The President called the regional commission to Dar-es Salaam - yes, a great distance, more than 400 miles - and ordered the European released immediately. The regional commissioner is no longer in that post. But the change took place months later - so you could not connect the incident with him (story told by Joseph Namata, former principal secretary of Nyerere, W. E. Smith: Nyerere of Tanzania, London 1973, p.24).

The seeds of what went wrong with the villagization programme, to which we have referred, lay in the uneasy mix of social control, participation with enlightenment, and accountability with a sense of responsibility. The centralization which the triangle of ideas produced did not always operate smoothly. And eighteen years after Arusha, President Nyerere admitted that the policy of centralized economic decision-making had been a mistake. It would have been better if rural co-operatives had been allowed to run their own affairs (J. K. Nyerere: Television Interview in Sweden, broadcast by the BBC in The World Today, 24 May 1985).

Rural Development: The Range of Views and Experiences Presented

In conclusion, the six studies present, with varying emphases, educational measures and activities which are an important part of efforts of all kinds - such as those mentioned by the Botswana study and quoted in the first section above - to improve the quality of life in rural areas or to achieve rural development for the benefit of the majority of populations in the six countries. Four such efforts, discernible from the studies, are mentioned below. They are:

(a) The production-oriented approach to rural development which is complemented by such agricultural extension and training services as are offered in the Philippines through a College of Agriculture and a network of farm schools and residential agricultural high schools.

(b) The effort to alleviate poverty which sees education as a nation-wide endeavour to meet basic needs combined with a recognition of the problems of poverty which are best solved, as indicated in the Arusha Declaration of Tanzania, through activities that are grounded in the philosophy of self-help and self-reliance.

(c) The project-based approach to rural development which launches a model activity to demonstrate how education can play an effective role in improving the quality of life. The Bunumbu project

presented by the Sierra Leone study would seem to have achieved, through the work of the Bunumbu Teachers College and its satellite schools, the progress desired towards community development and educational improvement.

(d) The effort to bring about a long term rural transformation which beams educational legislation and activities on the populations in the deprived rural areas and «de-links them from the exploitative chain that ties them to the modern urban sector» (IIEP: Education and Rural Development, Issues for Planning and Research, Paris 1985, p.31).

Undoubtedly, the hope in every one of the six countries in which the studies were conducted was that measures adopted and the educational activities which followed them would combine with other efforts to bring about a long-term rural transformation rather than piecemeal improvements. It would be the lot of others to provide the detailed evidence that would show the extent to which the hope was fulfilled.

II. CASE STUDIES: THE VILLAGE SCHOOL AND ITS ROLE IN DEVELOPMENT

YUGOSLAVIA - Experiences of two Schools in two different geographical regions of different socio-economic conditions (Serbia)

Primary School «Vuk Karadžic» - Potočac

Potočac is situated in the central part of Serbia in an agriculturally and industrially more developed region of the Republic. It is 12 kms. away from Paračin, the industrial town to which it belongs administratively, in the fertile valley of river Morava. Paračin has glass, textile and food preparation industries. Potočac is connected with Paračin and other surrounding settlements by a well-developed network of roads, and such other forms of communication as telephone, radio and television. Half of the village population is engaged in agriculture and the other half in industry.

The school, «Vuk Karadžić», is the central school and has three branches in neighbouring villages (two branches with grades I-IV and one branch with complete grades I-VIII). The school itself has eight grades. Together with its branches it forms the administrative unit with the same curriculum and has 612 pupils. The total number of staff is 36 including administrators and a librarian. Many teachers commute to school; so do the pupils who have to continue their schooling in the central school after completing the lower grades in a branch school. A bus service is organized by the school for the purpose.

The central school has a modern building which was designed to satisfy the requirements of an up-to-date curriculum. (It has special cabinets, a media centre, a room for sports and cultural activities, etc.) The school premises and its facilities are above average in comparison with other primary schools in Serbia. The teaching staff is fully qualified and function together with local community representatives, parents and financial supports (from the self-managing primary school community of interests) to form the School Council, which has, as one of its responsibilities, the adoption of the curriculum at the beginning of the school year.

Three groups of experiences based on practices aimed at improving school work and developing the local community are presented below to illustrate the practical realization of school-community integration. The first group relate to the community curriculum and socially-useful work.

Even before the latest school curriculum was adopted, the community curriculum was directed to agriculture and health education. The pupils were able to take practical courses in farming, fruit-growing, wine-growing and cattle-raising which are the basic agricultural pursuits of the local population. These courses were organized with a large-scale integration of contents; and their realization was linked with participation in seasonal agricultural work in collaboration with local agricultural experts. Under this programme the engineer of agronomy functions at the same time as the teacher and organizer of pupils' practical work on land given to the school for agricultural purposes. The integration of the school, state agricultural co-operatives and privately-owned property of parents interested in the improvement of their children's practical knowledge is realized in this matter. The programme, which was planned in consultation with community representatives, was welcomed by the population as a positive contribution of the school to the economic development of the community.

A second area in which implementation has been successful for years is health education which has, in fact, been extended to include human environment protection. The school co-operates with the local health centre in two ways: protection of pupils' health and education for self-protection. This co-operation is carried out through regular school and out-of-school activities. It contributes to the development of hygienic habits in pupils and helps to raise the general level of hygiene and health in the community, which is a matter of great importance in the villages.

Protection of the human environment (ecological education) is closely connected with health education and socially-useful work since they induce pupils to take care of, and protect, the school premises, its environment, public places (e.g. local squares, parks, monuments, etc.).

The «Vuk Karadžić» school runs a Nature Conservation Club, which successfully co-operates with the local community in planting trees and afforesting the bare mountainous terrains. The Club, with the main aim of protecting and planting trees, has been very popular among the youth. The school has clubs or «sections» dealing with other areas within its extra-curricular activities, which are of special interest; and although these are formed mainly in accordance with the pupils' preferences, their success significantly depends on the enthusiasm of teachers and the willingness of the local community to help. Among these may be mentioned some rather unusual ones like fashion-designing, archeology and a painting club or section with a gallery. All of them are the result of the great enthusiasm shown by both teachers and the community.

Although the fashion-design club started its work as part of the painting section within the regular curricula, it has been so developed that it has successfully established a «business-relationship» with the textile industry in the local community and beyond. The section enables the pupils not only to be of use and of help to the textile industry but also to develop their own aesthetic sense and realize their creative abilities. For example, the working uniforms of pupils were designed by the section and tailored by the local textile company in Paraćin. Fashion shows have been arranged by the section in the school (for all pupils and village population) and textile factories.

Some children's garments designed by members have been manufactured by a well-known factory and could be given as a good example of successful integration of education and productive work as well as of professional orientation. In the process, several pupils of the school have chosen fashion-designing as their profession.

The archeological section has especially contributed to the school/museum interaction in the town of Paračin. Its activities, particularly those connected with the excavation of sites, are carried out in co-operation with the museum experts. Such co-operative activities have made it possible, on the one hand, for pupils to broaden their knowledge and raise the level of general culture and, on the other hand, for the museum itself (which otherwise would not have sufficient means to conduct big archeological excavations) to enrich its collection of excavated objects. In this interaction the school is given the credit for improving the museum which, being a public cultural institution, indirectly influences the raising of the cultural level of the local community members.

The fine arts club and school gallery are organized within the framework of extra-curricular and out-of-school activities. This has made it possible for the school to make the village gallery, too, accessible to everyone. For its full-time participation in organizing regular exhibitions at the local, regional as well as national level, the school gets in return one painting, as a present. By such an agreement, the school gallery collection has expanded beyond expectation.

The newly-formed ethno-music section is also one of the uncommon extra-curricular and out-of-school activities. Here, the pupils collect and preserve little-known old songs and other forms of the musical heritage of the community. In this process, as is the case with other sections, the school curriculum and extra-curricular activities are inter-connected. The pupils learn how to collect and to process data of ethno-music heritage by themselves and at the same time gain useful experience in self-education.

The activities of all these pupils' sections form an integral part of the annual school programme which is financially supported by the community.[1)]

Of course, there is also the possibility for pupils to earn money through such socially-useful activities or the school co-operative. Funds so acquired are spent on equipment, books, excursions and other pupils's needs. A greater part of the teaching equipment has been procured as the result of the co-operation with the local community or as gifts from the agricultural and industrial organizations.

Primary education of adults is the third area in which school-community co-operation has been effective. It is being performed through teaching adults to read and write; imparting professional knowledge to them; and raising their general educational and cultural level.

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1) Regardless of difference between the regular, community or even adult education curriculum, financial support has been provided for them at the community level. All obligations legally foreseen have been supported in the same way - through the Primary School Self-management Communities of Interests. Additional funds have been provided by the Republic for less developed regional local communities.

The experience of the school in teaching adults to read and write is particularly interesting. The activity has successfully contributed towards the eradication of illiteracy from the community.[1] At the beginning, the main problems were when (day or evening), and where, the course should be organized. There was some resistance either for psychological reasons or for lack of agreement on a suitable time. Therefore, the school decided to apply the so-called method of «visit teaching» whereby the teachers taught illiterates during formal and informal visits to their homes. It was accepted as a very popular way of teaching although it was hard work and required extra time, or the use of part of the spare time of the teacher.

Additional professional education of adults is organized by the school through winter evening courses in agreement with the community work organizations and with the adult education centre at the commune level in Paračin[2]. The winter agriculture course, organized by the school, for example, enabled farmers to acquire advanced knowledge. Classes were conducted by experts from well-developed agricultural organizations, institutes or even universities.

The work on broadening and raising the general cultural and educational level is the third aspect of education of adults. Literature evenings, lectures on popular topics, exhibitions and film shows are a regular activity in this regard, although with the increasing number of homes having the television, the school has lost its role as the village cinema.

Apart from consultative meetings dealing with the pupils' problems and psychological, pedagogical and mental hygiene lectures, contacts with parents of pupils who work abroad provide another opportunity for developing school-parent co-operation. The school collected and filed relevant data about these parents with the assistance of the local community and the pupils themselves. It is an important part of the Parents Council programme existing in this school and is treated as a youth education question.

Finally, the school library and media-centre is open all day long and is accessible to everyone, especially to the youth who have completed the primary school and opted to live in the area served by the school. Such accessibility of the school to the local community secures in return a contribution from the community in the shape, for example, of assisting with the erection of new school buildings, cultivating the school garden, maintaining the school grounds and sport fields and giving donations, etc. The donation of funds is done in accordance with the school curriculum and self-management decisions of the community voted by the whole population.

Primary School «Djaci pesaci» - Stranjani

The village Stranjani is a typical developing village situated in a mountainous region 1,300 m above sea level and 35 kms away from the nearest town. Its population mainly deals in cattle-raising. It is in the south-west part of Serbia, close to the Montenegin border. The only persons with formal education in the village are the school teachers.

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1) Primary education is obligatory by law so that there are no more illiterates in this region except for sporadic cases of illiteracy among newcomers.

2) Adult education centres offer primary and additional education through regular and part-time schooling and on a correspondence basis.

The name of the school, «Djaci pesaci», which means «walking pupils», clearly reflects its nature. This school is a central school for a few branch schools in places up to 15 kms away, so that some pupils walk 30 kms a day to school and back. It is not possible to organize their transportation due to the lack of roads. The school time-table has been adapted to the geographical and climatic conditions of this region. In order to meet the needs of the «walking pupils», classes start at 9 a.m. and finish at 2 p.m. When necessary a further adjustment is made in accordance with weather conditions, particularly in the winter.

A high rate of migration has resulted in a considerable reduction in enrolment. Fifteen years ago there were 270 pupils in the school. Now there are barely 80, although the school has all eight grades and 11 teachers. This school is an example of a small rural school whose survival is of great importance for the social and cultural life of the village. Being the only cultural institution in the village, its link with the local population is stronger and more important than was the case before.

The usual aspects of school-community co-operation that were generally discussed in respect of the «Vuk Karadžić» school will not be repeated. Attention will be focussed on the specific school-community interaction and mutual influence that helps to develop the working conditions of the school as well as raise the education level of the village. The presentation of this interaction might be seen as too simplified; but the interaction is as important as it is simple and has resulted from the conditions of living in this environment.

The influence of the school on the local population, particularly on the parents of pupils, is reflected in the following activities: community and optional programmes (cattle-raising, farming traffic education, human environment protection); extra-curricular activities comprising those of «the lovers of nature» which include collecting medicinal herbs, forest maintenance, horticulture, as well as painting, music, sports and photography; and the education of adults and organization of socio-political and cultural activities.

Let us start from the latter group of activities. Electrification, undertaken a few years ago, construction of the road that connects the village with the town as well as the erection of a new school building and corresponding sports fields were organized by the school staff; and the local population participated either through donations or through work. Such organized activities require a close link with the local population as well as promising programmes in which the latter could see a better future.

Apart from its educational role, the school, in this instance, is a substitute for non-existent cultural facilities, for example, the cinema. It has organized film shows and television viewing although the increase in the number of television sets in homes has meant a reduction in the school's effort in this regard. It provides a library (6,000 books are available) and is the centre of cultural and socio-political activities. Among the cultural activities sponsored by the school are the painting gallery foundation of the village-born painters and the maintenance and stimulation of the folk arts and crafts, a matter of particular importance for a region with a specific cultural identity.

The school photo-club has not only provided a necessary spart time activity. It has also an important chronicle role. Its photographic records serve as a development chronicle for the village and have the important function of providing information to the local and regional population. For instance,

the newspaper articles about the school experiences have always been illustrated with photographs made by the photo-club members.

As far as the participation of the village population in the socio-political life of the region is concerned, the school provides a link between the administrative commune structure and the local community, in this case, the village.

The pupils' clubs are both educative as well as income-generating in nature. For instance, the nature lovers gather herbs which are medicinal and have a financial value as well.

With regard to traffic education, one could notice that it is as much a part of the compulsory and community curricula as cattle raising and farming. The idea of introducing this programme in an area with so little developed traffic communications is to prepare the community for future needs.

Education of adults has been organized through lectures, courses and examinations in co-operation with the Adult Education Centre in Prijepolje, the commune centre. The programme for teaching illiterates to read and write has been organized in the same way as described earlier and has been successfully completed. The school also organized additional knowledge courses for youth who want to work in a factory.

Due to the dwindling of the population, which now consists mainly of older people, the school activities have been considerably reduced. But the pedagogical, psychological and medical lectures have regularly taken place in order to raise the general cultural and educational level of members of the community. Although addressed to the parents of pupils, they are open to everyone.

The pupils' public performances have two main objectives: stimulation of pupils' creativity and appreciation of fine arts as well as the organization of cultural events for the community. These performances are mainly organized on the occasion of various celebrations. In this manner the entire social and cultural life of the village is organized in co-operation with the school. That justifies its existence regardless of the insufficient number of pupils.

BOTSWANA - Four Communities and their Schools

Approach and Background

In contrast to other ongoing studies of changes in education a somewhat different approach, based on Botswana's traditional consultation system, was used. Chiefs or headmen called villagers together in the village meeting place/court (kgotla) and, there, information on schools and their communities was obtained in consultations. The process of consultation, together with individual interviews, was video-filmed, thanks to the co-operation of a consultant who was engaged in recording opinions of people in rural areas for use in an evaluation conference due to take place in 1988.

Villages and Community Junior Secondary Schools selected for study

The schools in the villages so consulted are the Thamaga Community Junior Secondary School in Thamaga, Kweneng District in eastern Botswana, approximately

50 kms from the capital Gaborone; the Lehutselo Community Junior Secondary School in Hukuntsi, in Kgalagadi District deep in the Kgalagadi Desert; the John Nswazi Community Junior Secondary School in Marapong in Central District in the northern half of the country approximately 75 kms from Francistown, the second largest town in the country; and the Okavango Community Junior Secondary School at Gomare in Ngamiland District in the north-west, 265 kms from the district capital Maun.

The first two schools are of the new type of schools established under the partnership programme in 1984, and later transferred to new buildings erected under the Ministry of Education building scheme. John Nswazi school was set up under the old system as a private secondary school on community initiative. The Okavango school falls between the two types described above. It owes its origin to a committee formed in Gomare in the early 1980s with the object of establishing a private secondary school in the village. Fund raising for this purpose was initiated. Donor funds through a UN agency were made available to supplement the village initiative and the Okavango Private Secondary School was officially opened in March 1984.

Socio-economic Indicators of Villages *

Comparative data on socio-economic features of the four case study villages, drawn from the 1981 Census Report (1982), provide the following informative details. Thamaga has a fairly high proportion of female-headed households (67%). Of its population 10 years and above, 34% has never been to school. Eleven per cent of its population are abroad, mainly working in South African mines. Only one fifth of its economically active population are employed with 71% involved in traditional agriculture.

Hukuntsi has the lowest proportion of female-headed households (41%) of the four villages. Almost half (46%) of its population over ten years has never been to school. A total of 35% of its economically active population are cash employed, which is somewhat surprising, considering the fact that this village is very isolated in the Kalahari desert.

Marapong, the smallest village, has the highest number of female-headed households (76%) and the smallest proportion, a quarter of its population, «never at school». Only a small proportion (4%) of its population is working or studying abroad.

Gomare, with 64% of its households headed by females has half of its population 10 years and older in the category «never at school». A surprising 38% of its economically active population are engaged in «self-employment». It is assumed that basket-making, to a very great extent, accounts for this high percentage.

Thamaga

Thamaga has historical links with the Transvaal in South Africa, from which some of its people come. It has traditionally been a major source of supply of labour to South African mines, the number of men recruited for the purpose being 1,403 in 1977 which, alongside the population figure of 6,520 in 1981, is very high. In 1978 a new recruitment policy was introduced by the recruitment agency, the Employment Bureau of Africa (TEBA), stipulating that only those who had been to the mines before should be recruited. The policy was regarded in the village as a disaster for young school-leavers, who would have to stay in the

* See Annex, pp. 49, 50.

village unemployed as there was no other outlet or work opportunity for them. The proportion of adult males away for work in South Africa declined as a result.

There is no evidence of active community participation in education or other development projects in Thamaga. A pottery and handicraft centre, the Botswelelo Centre, was opened in 1972 with the principle aim of providing vocational training for primary school leavers. It was started, however, not on community initiative but by a voluntary agency headed by a priest, Father Julian, who had worked in Botswana for many years. He approached the villagers in 1970, offering the resources of his agency for a training project. The project has had its ups and downs over the years. It is no longer a training but a handicraft centre, which provides employment for some adults.

A meeting arranged by the Chief at Thamaga brought some 30 people together and it was as educative for the research team as it was an opportunity for teachers and members of the community to express their aspirations. The team, who were somewhat frustrated with the results, found cause to question their own approach. In general, they had said more and listened less. Thamaga was the first case study and proved to be an experiment and a learning experience. The team had made a basic initial mistake by starting with an explanation of the purpose of their visit and, indeed, by calling the meeting at all before the necessary introduction of themselves. Secondly, they did not explain the objective of the meeting in a way that was understandable to the people in the village. By referring to Unesco and the Ministry of Education they did everything to distance the issue from the villagers. Thirdly, they found that though the traditional role of the kgotla meeting is for consultation with the people, it had been used in recent years by Government officials to disseminate information; and therefore people come to the kgotla expecting to be informed not to provide information and share ideas.

Hukuntsi

Hukuntsi lies in the Kgalagadi District, 450 kms. west of Kanye. It is the sub-headquarters of the District. The village is almost 60 years old. Its name comes from its location among a network of villages - Tsane, Lehututu, Lokwabe and Ncojane - and means «many turns». The first school was built by the London Missionary Society in 1925. Today this school is called Mosiiwa Community School after Chief Mosiiwa under whose leadership the village was founded; and it is one of the few primary schools with the word «community» in its name. It has boarding accommodation for children who come from outside the village. Compared to other schools in the isolated Kgalagadi District, Mosiiwa Community School is doing very well. For example, in the1986 Primary School Leaving Examination, 14% of its Standard 7 leavers obtained an A Pass, the highest pass given, against a national average of only 6%.

When the Ministry of Education requested District Councils in 1983 to provide facilities for secondary school classes, the Kgalagadi District offered classrooms in Lehututu, one of the Matsheng villages, approximately 10 kms from Hukuntsi. A private secondary school was then being contemplated for Hukuntsi by the villagers, who had also started to collect funds for buildings. Though there was a primary school in Lehututu, many children used to go to school in Hukuntsi, parents realising that results in that school were better than in their own village school. There was space available in Lehututu primary school, where the Lehutshelo Community Junior Secondary School began its life until accommodation

was ready in Hukuntsi for the school to transfer there in 1985, the villagers having participated in both clearing the land, making bricks and building houses for teachers.

Discussion with key people suggested by the Headman of the village constituted one of the principal sources of information for the study. The picture that emerged from the interviews was a general satisfaction with the school's physical facilities such as special rooms for technical studies, home economics, science and equipment. The catchment area for the school is large, the village comparatively small and therefore, in contrast to the other case study schools, this school has a hostel, kitchen and dining hall for children coming from far away. However, an opinion was expressed that the school should be made into a full boarding school for pupils from Hukuntsi as well. It was believed this would enhance the quality and the results of the school. Other practical issues mentioned, especially by the school administration, were transport and communication with Gaborone and, linked with these two, supplies. The school does not have a truck and for all its transport needs it depends on Council officers or Government.

There was also a good measure of awareness within the school of the problem of educating the majority for the life of work and educating the few for the next phase in formal education. The Head of the school put it this way:

> «So we built this school for our 'C' children and we knew it could help us in the village development».
>
> «Some children are slow to understand, but for some the darkness goes when they are in Form 3».
>
> «I think/hope the school children's syllabus contains everything which is there in life - everything to do with people's lives. If they are taught building, woodwork, knitting, this is helpful».
>
> «It is the job of the school and the Board of Governors to try to explain to the parents what the purpose of the school is ... Parents have to understand, students have to understand, and we teachers have to be fully aware that this new approach is not the old way of trying to push everyone through examinations ... It is a hard process. It is a long process».

Village leaders and school administrators in Hukuntsi seemed to be well informed about the policy of expansion of the secondary school system. Outside the school, not much reflection has taken place on the consequences of this innovation. There are very few jobs (at least Government ones) in the village for Community Junior Secondary School leavers. The curriculum is the same all over the country, and no dissatisfaction was expressed about the curriculum or the content of it. Rather the issue raised was that of the quality of education, which will produce many A's and B's in examination results to provide easy access to higher education. The thought of turning the school into a senior secondary school to enable children to sit for the Cambridge Overseas Examinations and go further was already being openly discussed.

There were, as yet, no suggestions regarding how to «deal with» those who do not continue their formal education. The role of the school in rural development was seen as bringing shops and other service activities like pipe-borne water to the village. There was not much thinking taking place on how the curriculum could promote rural development, or how a closer co-operation between the community and the school could bring about development.

Marapong

Marapong is a village 75 kms. north west of Francistown and 12 kms. south of the Francistown-Nata tarred road. It is situated on the bank of the Tlhalogang river. The river and its tributaries are all ephemeral and flow only after heavy rainfall. The main activity of the population is agricultural cultivation on rainfed land.

In 1947 the people who are now in Marapong migrated to Rhodesia, now Zimbabwe, because of a bitter dispute between their leader, John Nswazwi, and Regent Tshekedi of the Bangwato. They settled in Matabeleland near Plumtree. Shortage of land in that area forced them to change their farming techniques from what they were used to. The Rhodesian Government policy regarding the use of land by African farmers became more and more strict and forced the farmers to undertake permanent intensive cultivation. In 1959 Regent Tshekedi died. This and the fact that land was more easily available «at home» made the people of John Nswazwi return. Their return to Marapong brought about changes in the local economy. Agricultural techniques changed back to rotation agriculture and the rearing of cattle increased considerably.

Marapong has a long tradition of community involvement in education. While the villagers were in exile in Zimbabwe, they established their own primary school. Upon return, they first camped in Sebina for a year and their children went to school there. Although they settled permanently in Marapong in 1961, their children continued to go to school in Sebina. In 1966, before Independence, the villagers started to build the primary school, which was subsequently taken over by the District Council. In 1974, the community started planning to establish a private secondary school. They built class rooms and recruited teachers and opened their own school in 1976 for children who had not managed to get admission into any of the Government secondary schools.

The next step was to start a Brigade. After numerous discussions and fund raising activities, a Brigade for knitting was started in 1980. Originally intended for training purposes, it became a production brigade providing employment for some of the original trainees, but no training for school leavers.

Information on Marapong was collected mainly through individual interviews with the chief, school staff, pupils, members of the Board of Governors and the community.

Community Participation

Of the four case study villages, Marapong had the best record of community participation in education. But the lack of information about the changes expected in the education system came out in discussions with teachers, students and community members in general. The Government's increased involvement in the community junior secondary school was also noted. Although the school staff had noted decreased involvement of parents in the activities of the school, they could say that there did not appear to be a corresponding drop in community participation in education in general. Rather, the community was looking for areas of the educational system where their effort would be welcome, for example, helping with job training and providing boarding facilities.

Gomare

Gomare has a comparatively long history. The Bayei tribe, who founded the village, migrated during the latter part of the 18th century from present-day Zambia and the Caprivi Strip. Gomare still has a predominantly Bayei population.

It has grown rapidly during the past fifteen to twenty years. The population tripled from 689 to 1,794 inhabitants between the 1971 and 1981 Census, due to the siting in the village of various Government instituions. The sub-district administrative centre of Ngamiland was transferred there from Shakawe in 1979. Gomare became the centre of the Ngamiland Communal First Development Area in 1980 and three years later the Ovakango Community Junior Secondary School was opened in the village. The Ngamiland Agricultural Development Project also has its centre in Gomare. In addition to shops, tribal administration, sub-land board and Government extension services there is also a post office and a health centre and there is a flow of people into Gomare from the surrounding country.

The major economic activity of people in the village is agriculture while handicraft is the main source of cash income. Other sources include the sale of cattle, brewing of traditional beer, employment in the area itself and remittances from villagers working in South Africa. A full list of sources of income is given below.

Sources of Cash Income in Gomare

Rank Order	Source of Income	No. of households	Percentage
1	Basket making	77	69
2	Selling cattle	57	51
3	Formal employment (including remittances)	49	44
4	Beer brewing	45	41
5	Casual labour (i.e. drought relief)	20	18
6	Selling reeds	15	14
7	Baking bread	13	12
8	Selling milk	6	5
9	Selling thatching grass	3	3
10	Business	2	2

At the time of the study, there was one primary school and one Community Junior Secondary School. An Education Centre for in-service training of teachers and for non-formal education activities was being planned. The Department of Non-formal Education was running literacy groups and had a study centre for students enrolled in correspondence courses.

In Gomare, the Kgotla meeting was well attended. The team was fortunate to have had a long session, well in advance of the meeting, with the Chief's representative who subsequently explained with the desired effect that the research team had come to listen and to hear local views on education, the changes taking place, the community junior secondary school, etc. The team did not have to ask any questions. The people were eager to tell them, the video-camera, and indirectly the Ministry of Education, what kind of education they wanted for their children. Separate interviews with school staff and school leavers took place and a tracer-study was carried out.

The kgotla meeting, by the choice of the local participants, concentrated to a great extent on the content and purpose of education, which stood high on their list of concerns. Two participants put the case this way, highlighting the incidence of unemployment among school leavers and the consequent deliquency among them:

> «We all see the same problems that are happening around us. People try their best to send their children to school; but the children eventually come back home and stay with parents, and do nothing to show that they have once been to school. Whether their formal education stops after the primary school or the junior secondary school, they all come back and stay with parents. When they go out of their own houses they go to steal, as a way of helping themselves because they would have applied to different departments for jobs without success. We really want practical work to be taught in the schools ... So far we have been giving them basic education but I would say we are not really sure where it will lead them. Some of them will go on to further education; but some will get the idea that they are educated, and they will even refuse to go to the cattle-post thereafter».

Conclusions and Recommendations

Though many community members expressed their concern in the course of the studies over the take-over of selection into the first form of the Junior Secondary School by the Ministry of Education, the step must be regarded as being in line with a long-term Government policy to make access to secondary education fairer than hitherto. It is an attempt to merge the two parts of a two tier secondary education system into one. In the old system the academically most qualified students were offered places in Government schools on application. But not all their equals in primary schools in rural areas were in a position to apply. In many ways the children from poor rural families were at a disadvantage.

Slightly more well-off families, whose children did not make it into Government secondary schools, often took the initiative to start a private secondary school in the community or travelled around the country to villages that already had established a private secondary school looking for places for their children.

The question may be asked as to whether the junior secondary school leavers do stay on in the rural areas. Urban migration is very high in Botswana. Gaborone, the capital, is the fastest growing urban centre in Africa. The school leavers who had managed to secure employment had mostly found it in towns. A great number of those who are looking for jobs are realistic enough to do so in urban areas. Recently two posts for Junior Secondary School leavers were advertised. Hundreds, probably more than one thousand, turned up to be interviewed for these two positions, breaking the glass doors of the Government department concerned in their anxiety not to miss their chance.

The case studies show, however, that not all school leavers go to town to seek employment. Many are said to stay at home «doing nothing» or «idling». To what extent are these youngsters, who have higher formal education than most of the adults in the village, prepared for a productive life in their home community?

In the course of the case studies, there were indications that parents and community leaders would welcome a curriculum that is more practical and vocational in its approach than is the case. It was their view that children should learn to do something practical that would help them earn a living. Whether the new curriculum would achieve such a result remains to be seen. Although integrated subjects like social studies, technical studies and integrated science are no doubt a step towards a curriculum that is more closely related to the realities of life, it would appear that not enough effort has been devoted to making the teaching and learning practical and applicable to real life issues.

Agriculture appears to be a key element in a curriculum geared towards rural development. At the moment the agriculture curriculum is undergoing a major overhaul and it is therefore difficult to anticipate which direction it will take. In fact, for most of the subjects the syllabuses are not considered to be final. They are still being developed and will undergo evaluation and further development. There appears to be an awareness among curriculum developers of weaknesses and of the need to go beyond the present changes to create an even more relevant curriculum, which in the context of present day Botswana means a curriculum geared towards the needs of the majority of junior secondary school leavers, who come from, and will have to continue to live in, rural areas.

Studies in Botswana as well as in other developing countries have indicated that students in less developed countries tend to have markedly higher educational aspirations/expectations than their counterparts in industrialized parts of the world. It was rare in our case studies to find a student who did not expect to proceed to senior secondary school after Junior Certificate. In reality, although there are plans to expand senior secondary education, the expansion envisaged will in no way match the expansion taking place at junior secondary level. For the majority of school leavers, junior secondary level will be the final stage of their formal education.

An increasing number of junior secondary school leavers will consequently be looking for employment in a country with one of the fastest records in the creation of formal sector jobs on the continent of Africa. It is doubtful, however, as to whether this growth rate can be sustained. The painful fact is that, even with such a high growth rate, not all school leavers will be able to find employment in the formal sector. Therefore, what is taught in schools should also prepare these youngsters for a life in rural areas, not in white collar employment, but as farmers or in any other productive activity in the informal sector, where the skills and knowledge gained from schooling would help improve life.

At the end of 1987 there will be a double output of junior secondary school leavers comprising pupils from Form 3 of the old system and others from Form 2 of the new and totalling 18,399 in sharp contrast to the output of 8,949 of the previous year. The number of first year senior secondary school places in 1988, according to the National Development Plan, will be 8,539. Therefore, a total of 9,860 youngsters in 1987 as compared to 5,649 in 1986, will have to compete for places outside the senior secondary system, in vocational training centres as apprentices or in the labour market. The total number of formal sector employment opportunities per year is calculated at 11,500, whereas the increase in the labour force is estimated at 21,000 per annum. Communities are starting to wake up to the problem of youth unemployment

and are querying the content of education. While the potential of the community junior secondary schools for bringing their influence to bear on rural development is great, they carry within them the possibility for a virtual disaster, if the curriculum continues to prepare students only for further schooling or formal sector jobs.

Community participation is a prerequisite for rural development. Top-down planning, administration, implementation of rural development is a poor starting point. Botswana can boast of a long tradition of community participation and consultation. The most striking finding of this study has been the declining community participation in the community junior secondary schools. Statements such as «Government has taken over our schools», «The As and Bs are Government's children», were frequently heard.

The Ministry of Education had no intention of taking over the schools, when it launched its «Partnership Programme». It followed the National Education Commission's advice to build on the existing structure of community participation in education. The decision to move towards universal junior secondary education was a political decision in response to an increasing social demand. However, education, like other social service sectors, «is expected to be planned, to be organized rationally, and to be guided by expertise to maximize the effect of scarce resources». The present educational reform is not only a question of universal access to junior secondary education. It also embraces a major curriculum reform, and a major reorientation of schooling, from preparation for senior secondary schooling - the predominant focus in the old system - towards preparation for life in the new system. The merger of the two systems, i.e. the Government secondary schools and the former private secondary schools, was important in relation to the achievement of equality within the education system, not least between urban and rural areas.

It appears from our case studies that the objectives of the changes made and expected are not fully understood by parents and community members in rural areas, who are not involved in curriculum development and have not been asked what kind of education they want for their children but continue to be concerned about those who do not make it in the official system. Parents are asked to contribute funds for teachers' houses, to elect Boards of Governors whose powers are slowly being undermined, etc., but they are not encouraged to take their own initiatives. Problems arise when a community decides that it wants a community junior secondary school in a location that has not been identified by the planners and administrators in the Ministry of Education.

The so-called study groups, which in fact are private secondary schools, have become an embarrassment to the Ministry. They are mushrooming in response to a social demand for junior secondary education, which cannot, at this stage, be met by the expansion programme of the Government. The Ministry feels unable to do much about the consequent unplanned expansion. It runs the risk not only of just being a step or two behind the communities in taking the necessary initiative but also of losing the battle to achieve equal opportunity to obtain junior secondary education for all. Poor communities, communities with less local initiative, and probably already disadvantaged educationally, would suffer under such a system.

There is continuing, or even increasing, tension between the official education establishment as represented by the Ministry of Education and the local communities regarding the implementation of the educational reform.

Local autonomy is being challenged and the school Boards are asking questions about their roles. At the same time, there continues to be a need for local involvement in the community junior secondary schools, both regarding financial contribution and regarding practical assistance, e.g. in relation to accommodation and boarding of students. Most importantly, however, if education is to have an impact on rural development, the participation of local communities is crucial. The present decline in community participation needs to be reversed.

Why did it go wrong, when indeed it appears that the policies as well as the steps towards implementation seemed to be right? The Ministry of Education has closely followed the recommendations of the National Education Commission in implementing the junior secondary school programme; however, it has taken too lightly the recommendation that the general public should not only be informed but also consulted. The recommendation has been ignored, and the limited information disseminated on the expected changes has often not been fully understood as was demonstrated in the course of the study not only by parents, but by teachers and school administrators alike. This has serious implications for the participation of local communities.

The first and main recommendation to the Ministry of Education is, therefore, that a major information campaign should be started using existing staff supplemented by specially recruited «information officers». It should be admitted that the information made available so far has not had the impact it ought to have had.

Nor would information by itself stop communities from taking their own initiatives regarding education. The experience of Tanzania described below is very likely to be repeated in Botswana:

> «Although there are clearly stated policies and rules that set the conditions for educational expansion, officials find themselves impotent, unable to close unregistered or otherwise illegal schools ... National officials set the formal rules, but locally based coalitions open schools».

Indeed, while the Government is busy implementing the junior secondary expansion programme, the communities might start preparing for senior secondary schools, as was happening in at least one of the case study communities.

The need is for the efforts of local communities and of central ministries of education to be dovetailed. There is not one single solution, or even a set of solutions to this problem. The fundamental issue appears to be one of securing mutual understanding and a continuing dialogue between local communities and central authorities.

APPENDIX

Socio-Economic Features of the Four Case Study Communities

	Thamaga	Hukuntsi	Marapong	Gomare
Number of households	1,169	360	156	326
Percentage female-headed households	67%	41%	76%	64%
Occupied dwellings	1,150	339	141	315
Persons enumerated	6,520	2,009	951	1,794
Average per household	5.6	5.6	6.1	5.5
Persons abroad (percentage)	779(11)	150(7)	42(4)	33(2)
Percentage women	62%	56%	58%	61%
Number 14 years and less (percentage)	3,372(52)	975(49)	497(52)	865(48)
Percentage still at school	22%	20%	25%	18%
Percentage never at school (10+)	34%	46%	24%	50%
Economic activity:				
Cashwork (for others)	18%	35%	32%	28%
(for self)	2%	1%	5%	38%
Seeking work	6%	4%	9%	1%
Piece jobs	3%	2%	0%	2%
T.aditional agriculture	71%	58%	54%	31%
Number 12+ (percentage)	3,617(56)	1,156(58)	531(56)	1,023(5
Major occupation: %				
Professional and technical	50%	50%	49%	50%
Managerial	1%	1%	1%	0%
Clerical	3%	8%	3%	1%
Sales	10%	4%	18%	4%
Service	11%	16%	8%	6%
Agriculture	1%	5%	5%	20%
Production, etc.	25%	17%	16%	19%
Number of people working in mines	680	74	4	29

APPENDIX (Cont'd)

	Thamaga	Hukuntsi	Marapong	Gomare
Water Supply:				
% Piped in plot	7%	8%	1%	2%
% Stand pipe	89%	63%	1%	98%
Borehole			90%	
Fuel for cooking:				
% Paraffin	3%	2%	1%	2%
% Wood/Charcoal	95%	95%	99%	97%
Fuel for lighting:				
% Electricity	1%	0%	0%	0%
% Paraffin	88%	78%	87%	60%
% Candle	6%	4%	6%	16%
Sanitation:				
% Pit latrine	17%	7%	21%	2%
% None	81%	1%	79%	96%
% Other	-	60%	-	-
Dwelling units by material:				
% Thatched roofs	57%	85%	86%	94%
% Mud/reed walls	58%	86%	83%	89%
% Mud floors	52%	84%	74%	91%

SIERRA LEONE - Three Projects for Development in Rural Communities

On the basis of a review of the literature on educational reform in Sierra Leone and visits to a number of education reform sites, three educational reform projects and six associated villages were selected for study. They are set out in the table below:

Study Projects and Associated Villages

Project (Distance in miles from Freetown, the capital)	Associated Villages	
	Within the project site	At the periphery of the project area
Bunumbu Project (240)	Bunumbu	Malema
Community Education Centre (Pujehun) (206)	Pujehun	Tongay
Betty Carew Community Centre (Yonibana) (95)	Yonibana	Petifu

Villages

Bunumbu

Bunumbu, a large rural settlement in the northern part of the Kailahun District, comprises three wards. It has a Teachers' College, an agricultural secondary school and two primary schools which are associated with the College in a rural development project. The settlement or village has pipe-borne water supply and electricity in some parts, a health centre, two maternity centres, and access to a hospital located at Segwema about 16 miles away.

Most adult inhabitants are engaged in the production of rice, cassava and some vegetables for subsistence and coffee and cocoa as cash crops. Some of the peasants work as non-agricultural labourers at Bunumbu Teachers' College, the hub of the Bunumbu Project, for about eight hours on a week-day and end up in the evening, and on weekends, on their farms. Cultivation methods are mainly traditional although a few inhabitants benefit, on a personal basis, from expert advice on improved agricultural methods and on the use of insecticides and fertilizers from personnel attached to the Bunumbu Project. The marketing of agricultural products is made fairly easy through resident buying agents of the Sierra Leone Produce Marketing Board.

One of the two primary schools is used as a pilot school for the Bunumbu Project. It is fairly well-staffed with qualified teachers and has been the testing ground for primary school curriculum materials developed by the Project. The other is developing as an associated pilot school with 321 children and 12 teachers, some of whom are untrained and unqualified.

It is estimated that about 15 per cent of the adult population (2,500-3,000) are literate.

Malema

Malema is a small village situated on a spur in the hilly Yawai Chiefdom, Kailahun District, about 14 miles north of Bumumbu. It has a population of about 1,389 inhabitants of whom 703 are adults (421 women and 282 men). Of some 678 children, 346 are under five years of age, 221 are between 5 and 15, and 111 are above 15

The principal occupation is agriculture, the products being coffee, cocoa, rice, cassava, maize and vegetables, of which the last three are grown for local consumption. There is some animal husbandry covering the breeding of goats, sheep and poultry principally for ceremonies and not for sale, although it tends to be regarded as a mark of prestige. The methods and techniques of agriculture are predominantly traditional using as yet neither foreign breeds nor insecticides. Agricultural work is done by both men and women on a division of labour basis; the men dothe more difficult jobs, and the women do those that are less strenuous. Their labour suffers extensively from pests including monkeys, baboons and squirrels. Some skilled labour from carpentry, blacksmithy and masonry is available in the village.

The houses are of wattle and daub with corrugated iron roofs and are in poor condition. The majority have latrines although in bad condition. The entire village gets its drinking water from one well. It has no health centre. The nearest hospital is about 30 miles away. A return trip to it costs Le 20.00.

The village has a school of 285 children with seven teachers, only two of whom are qualified; the remaining teachers are untrained and unqualified pupil teachers.

Pujehun

The rural community of Pujehun is in the south-western part of the Pujehun District. Its village is built on a raised laterite ground and it is almost completely surrounded by swamps and streams. The existence of motorable roads gives it an easy access by public transport to Bo, the nearest town, 46 miles away.

The majority of the inhabitants are of the Mende tribe, the largest tribe in Sierra Lone. The other main ethnic groups in the village are Fullahs, Temnes and Limbas.

The living conditions in the village on the average are satisfactory. The houses occupied by the inhabitants are the same as those at Malema except that a few are built with cement.

Most of the houses have electricity from a power station. Some have private generators as well to supply electricity when there is none from the Central Power Station. There is no pipe-borne water system nor wells. Drinking water is obtained from rivers and streams. Water shortage is usually experienced during the dry season. However, there is a health centre manned by trained personnel. Drugs are provided at the centre but at a very high cost. There are also some traditional herbalists who help to cure the sick.

The principal economic activity of the inhabitants is agriculture. The majority of the active population, male and female, are engaged in the production of rice, cassava and vegetables. Animal husbandry is also practised. Sheep, goats and chickens are reared. Most of the agricultural produce is sold in neighbouring Liberia.

Pujejun has several market places, a post office, two Churches and two Mosques, a community centre and a court barrie. The District Officer is the administrative head of the district. The village chiefs, however, play an important role in the administration.

The village has six primary and two secondary schools. About 25 per cent of the teachers are trained and qualified. The reverse is the case in the secondary schools where 75 per cent of the teachers are trained and qualified. It has two non-formal education institutions, namely, the Community Education Centre and the Growth Centre where interested participants are trained in different trades such as sewing, carpentry and gara-dyeing.

Tongay

Tongay is a small village of 28 households situated in the north-western part of the Pujehun District. Set on a raised laterite ground of four square miles in area, it is about three miles from the rural community of Pujehun. It has a population of 725 inhabitants made up of 420 adults (220 males and 200 females) and 305 young people (140 males and 165 females). The village is almost entirely populated by Mendes.

The principal occupation of the population is agriculture. The main products are rice, coffee, cocoa and cassava. Most of these products are for local consumption. Although some of the farmers use fertilizers, the methods and techniques of agriculture are predominantly traditional. Agricultural work is done mostly by the men, while the women look after the home and rear animals, mainly poultry. Some women, however, are also engaged in agricultural work.

The living conditions of the inhabitants are far from satisfactory. Most of the houses are in bad condition. Most of them are built with mud and wattle. There is neither electricity nor a pipe-borne water system. Drinking water is obtained from streams.

There is no formal educational institution in Tongay. Children have to travel to Pujehun to attend school. The village has no health centre. There is only a traditional herbalist. Most of the inhabitants are either Muslims or animists. There is a Mosque in the village. Tongay is indeed a good example of a small rural community in Sierra Leone.

Yonibana

The village of Yonibana is situated in the Yoni Chiefdom in the Tonkolili District. It is built on elevated ground and is surrounded by a number of streams.

It has a population of about 5,600 inhabitants, made up of 2,530 adults (1,560 males and 970 females) and 3,070 young people (1,875 males and 1,195 females). The main ethnic groups are Temnes and Mendes.

The living conditions in this rural community of Yonibana are satisfactory. The inhabitants live in mud, wooden and cement houses with corrugated iron roofs. Electricity is supplied to the houses from three main sources - Yonibana Secondary School, the Catholic Mission and the Rokel Leaf Tobacco Development Company. There is a pipe-borne water system, although drinking water is also obtained from wells, rivers and streams. Medical facilities are provided at the Government Health Centre which has trained personnel. Medical facilities are also provided in the Yonibana Community Development Project Health Centre.

The principal occupation of the population is agriculture, with animal husbandry as a subsidiary. The main produce comprises rice, maize, oranges, vegetables. The Integrated Agricultural Development Project (IADP-MAGBOSI) and the Yonibana Community Development Project play significant roles in the development of agriculture in the village. Seedlings and fertilizers are provided by these two projects to farmers. Agricultural products are sold in the local market place and in nearby towns.

Religion is an integral part of life in the village. There are three Churches and one Mosque.

There are three primary and one secondary schools in the village. Physical conditions in the primary schools are unsatisfactory and the majority of the teachers are untrained and unqualified. There are also two non-formal educational institutions, namely the Betty Carew Training Centre and the People's Educational Association (PEA) Centre. The latter only caters for adult learners. The Yonibana Community Development project provides recreational facilities for the inhabitants of the village.

Petifu

Petifu is a small rural community, four miles from Yonibana, and in the Yoni Chiefdom in the Tonkolili District. It is situated in a lowland area of swamps and savanna forest with a stream running through it.

The village has a population of 3,400 inhabitants made up of 1,100 adults (500 males and 600 females) and 2,300 young people (1,000 males and 1,300 females). The majority of the population are Temnes. There are a number of Mendes.

The principal occupations of both male and female inhabitants are agriculture and fishing. They grow mainly rice, cassava, potatoes and pineapples and rear goats and sheep. Most of the produce from the village is sold in nearby towns.

A majority of the inhabitants live in houses made of mud and wattle with corrugated iron roofs. There is no electricity but there is a pipe-borne water system in the village. In addition, drinking water is also obtained from wells and streams. As there is no health centre, medical help is mainly provided by traditional herbalists.

There is one primary school in the village and neither a secondary school nor an organized non-formal educational institution. Religion, however, forms an integral part of life in the village. There is a Church and a Mosque in Petifu.

Projects

The Bunumbu Project

The Unesco/UNDP-assisted Bunumbu Project was launched in the 1973/1974 academic year, in accordance with the Government's overall development priority to increase the level of agricultural production and to raise the general standard of living in rural areas. Operating within a 20-mile radius from Bunumbu in the Kailahun District, Eastern Province, the Project covered 20 pilot schools and their villages, with Bunumbu Teachers College serving as the hub of activities. It set out to develop a primary school curriculum, to produce primary school teachers who would also serve as community developers, and to develop a spirit

of school-community relationship which would improve education and the living standards of the communities in which primary schools were located.

In the area of teacher education, for example, such new subjects as agricultural science, pratical arts, community development and adult education, and home economics as part of the preparation to meet the needs of the rural communities were introduced in the pre-service teacher training programme. New learning strategies were also adopted. The pre-service programme for the training of teachers included, among them, the project approach to community development, the use of resource persons in the community, and community studies. All these efforts, strategies and techniques were aimed at preparing the teachers to meet the needs of the rural communities in which they would live and work, and to function satisfactorily in that dual capacity as teachers and community developers.

The 20 pilot schools in the 20-mile project area were used as Community Education Schools (CES), from which radiated a number of community development activities and the new teachers trained at Bumumbu co-ordinated and facilitated the efforts of field workers from other ministries. Members of the community served as resource persons in the areas of crafts and arts, rural technology and cultural affairs.

The college provided the necessary back-stop. It served project communities in various ways, such as in the teaching and practice of home economics and home management, and in giving assistance towards community projects such as the building of market places, latrines, water wells, roads and bridges. In a variety of ways, it fostered the forging of the necessary links between the school and the community in rural areas, which was one of the innovative components of the Bunumbu Project.

Community Education Centre (CEC), Pujehun

The dreams of the Holy Rosary Sisters, led by Sister Carmel Tuite, and Sister Margaret Bernnan and their colleagues who were teaching and doing parish work in Pujehun, materialized from a small beginning in a rented house in September 1968, via three rented houses, to a Community Education Centre in 1975. Situated in the Pujehun township is the district administration. Four large villages, Gobaru, Yonni, Massan and Pujehun, lie in close proximity within a radius of a mile and a half from the Centre.

The work of the Centre began with a few girls who were taught sewing and tie-dying in an informal setting by Sister Carmel and others. As the training progressed with additional funds from charitable organizations such as Misereor Funding Agency and grants from Agricultural Development and Crafts, the work of the Centre expanded. By 1975, the Centre included in its activities crafts, needlework, adult literacy, animal husbandry, swamp rice cultivation, vegetable gardening and palm oil plantation. Its programme was designed:

- to provide skills in domestic science, craft and agriculture for young people to make them economically independent;

- to provide an upgrading in the quality of crafts produced in the district;

- to experiment in agriculture and make the results available for demonstration purposes;

- to provide short courses in agriculture for local farmers, using methods suited to limited available capital;

- to train young people in commercial techniques and to provide them with office skills;

- to upgrade the efficiency of office workers and business administrators in job performance,

- to educate as far as possible illiterate members of the community through reading, writing and discussions; and

- to provide recreational facilities to the community for games, cultural activities and social gatherings.

The Centre's Self-Reliance Training Programme for Girls deserves special mention. Subjects offered through it ranged from basic school subjects to home management, agriculture, typing and handicrafts. By 1983 there were twenty-one girls and women enrolled full-time in the general courses and about twenty-two girls specializing in typing and business management. The staff also then included a gara (tie-dyeing) instructor and a weaving instructor who had no formal education but were experienced and competent in their craft.

However, with the subsequent departure of the Catholic Mission and reduced external funding, the Centre under an African head, with the Ministry of Education in overall control and responsible for the salaries of the staff of the Centre, some of the activities had to be curtailed. They were limited to home economics courses for post-primary girls, sewing and tailoring for boys and girls, carpentry and building construction, gara tie- and gara-dyeing for girls and adult women, and typing and office practice. Enrolment has been low and there has been a reduction in staff. Moreover, the remoteness of the project area, the unreliable supply of electricity and water and poor incentives had always been a source of some dissatisfaction among the African staff of the Centre.

Betty Carew Community Education Centre (CEC), Yonibana

A survey in 1962 by the Evangelical United Brethren (EUB) Mission revealed that the highest number of drop-outs among girls from primary and secondary education was from classes I and II of the former and the lower forms of the latter. The drop-outs ultimately became young jobless mothers with no previous training and skills or crafts to maintain themselves and their children. Further, about 90 per cent of adults living in Yoni Chiefdom were found to be illiterate or to have little or no formal education or any organized non-formal education; these people could not participate fully in their own self-development.

It was in search of a solution to such socio-economic problems in the Yoni Chiefdom that a community development programme was initiated at Yonibana in 1963 under the auspices of the EUB now renamed United Methodist Church (UMC). Initially, the programme focussed on evangelism, building local Churches, child-care, and nutrition. It also contained an agricultural component for new varieties of rice from Rokupr Rice Research Station and a small-scale animal husbandry.

In 1973, the missionary and manager of Yonibana Community Development Programme (YCDP), the Rev. William Ted Hebel, discovered that the majority of children around Yonibana and Eastern Yoni Chiefdom were suffering from the adverse effects of lack of family planning spacing; they were malnourished, and there was a high rate of infant mortality among them. The YCDP, therefore, employed a few UMC workers to teach mothers in Yonibana and its environs about good health and sanitation. But, these efforts yielded few positive results. It was decided that a Centre for the training of women in health and sanitation, simple handicrafts and home management should be established.

In March 1976, the Betty Carew Community Education Centre was formally opened by the United Methodist Women's Organization (UMWO) of the UMC for the women in Yoni Chiefdom and other women interest groups in Sierra Leone. It was named after the wife of the first African Bishop of the UMC for her service and dedication to the organization. She had died in a road accident on 29 July 1971 on her way to an executive meeting of the UMWO in Bo.

The objectives of the Betty Carew Community Education Centre were:

- to bring together interested women from all parts of the country for a period ranging from one to twelve months to engage in a mutual learning experience;

- to encourage women to improve their socio-economic and cultural standards by acquiring skills in sewing, childcare and nutrition, embroidery, cookery, home management, health and sanitation, and gara-dyeing;

- to cultivate and enhance the spirit of self-reliance;

- to provide training for at least twenty-five participants at a time; and

- to provide education for quality, leadership and better life for the trainees and their communities.

To achieve these objectives, the Centre has involved members of the community in a general process of lifelong education and an all-out effort to stimulate them to become the driving force behind their own development through participation in its activities. It identifies the learning needs of the community and develops action-based education programmes to meet these needs. The Centre is currently involved in implementing basic education and training programmes in nutrition and childcare, sewing, crochet work, embroidery, bead work, home making, health and sanitation, and adult literacy.

Another major role which the Centre plays is in the realm of integration and co-ordination. It acts as an intermediary to facilitate linkages between formal and non-formal education activities carried out by other community development agencies and organisations operating in and around the Yonibana Community. These agencies and organizations include the Canadian University Student Overseas (CUSO), the People's Educational Association (PEA), and the Catholic Relief Service (CRS).

Management of Educational Projects: Mechanisms in Use

National Advisory Committee (NAC)

In an attempt to establish an institutional framework for the execution of the Bunumbu Project, the Government of Sierra Leone, amongst other things, set up a National Advisory Committee (NAC) to advise the Bunumbu Teachers College Council and the Ministry of Education on the implementation of the project. The NAC comprised representatives of all the ministries and agencies interested and involved in rural development programmes and had responsibility for ensuring that activities generated by the project in the pilot villages were monitored and geared into the various development needs. The resultant inter-ministerial and inter-agency co-operation ensured a similar co-operation at the grass-roots level. In particular, the presence on the NAC of the Development Secretary, the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education and the Resident Representative of the United Nations Development Programme was meant to ensure that issues related to educational and development policies as well as to project requirements of technical assistance would be promptly resolved.

In rural Sierra Leone the chief and elders are regarded as the repository of wisdom. They also head the traditional institutions for social control, with powers to punish the deviant. Their authority is buttressed by the secret societies, which are still the dominant social and economic institutions in the rural areas. Ownership of land in provincial Sierra Leone is vested in the chiefs and elders.

Against this background, it was imperative that the chiefs and elders should be mobilized and given commensurate roles in rural development activities. The paramount chiefs of the four chiefdoms covered by the Bunumbu Project - Peje West, Peje Bongre, Njaluahun and Bandajuma Yawei - are members of the NAC. They are in a position to help tackle questions related to land, self-help projects and community co-operation.

Community Development Councils (CDCs)

In the Sierra Leone Government White Paper (1970) on education reform, the point was emphasized that educational institutions should act as catalysts for community development. The Bunumbu Project developed Community Development Councils (CDCs) as one of the means of playing this role. It formed the agricultural extension worker, the co-operative inspector, the community development officer, voluntary agencies, local craftsmen and women and civic leaders of each community into rural development teams under the guidance of a Community Development Council (CDC). Sub-committees of the CDC, serviced by community leaders as chairmen and staff of Bunumbu Teachers College as secretaries, dealt with specific problems in an integrated development programme. Through such a structure of local development teams and CDCs and their sub-committees, participatory development planning took place. A number of self-help projects were planned and executed. The self-help projects undertaken during the time international assistance was available to the Bunumbu Project included the construction and functioning of a consumer co-operative building, a petrol filling station, feeder roads, water wells, public toilets and bridges as well as the provision of rural banking facilities and the extension of electricity services to parts of the Bunumbu community.

Community Education Centre Administration

Up to 1984, before the Catholic Mission handed over the Centre with its modern facilities of electricity and pipe-borne water and 15-acre improved oil palm plantation management was vested in a CEC administration composed of representatives of the Technical/Science Division of the Ministry of Education (for policy, staff appointment and payment); the Catholic Mission (proprietors), the Manager/Director (as head of the Centre's administration) and eight other members appointed by the Ministry of Education. With the departure of the Catholic Sister and Priest, the Centre passed into the charge of an African Manager with overall control by the Ministry of Education, which pays the salaries of all staff members.

Project activities and enrolment have been reduced. Staff have been under-used and reduced. Supplies of materials and equipment have been inadequate. The Ministry of Education may well restructure the CEC Administration in order to regenerate the impetus and the achievements the Centre once had. In any case, an evaluation of the project will be necessary not only to bring out salient facts about the drop in effectiveness but also to provide guides for revamping the entire project.

No co-ordinating committee on rural development, a counterpart of the Bunumbu CDC involving the community people, was set up by the project even during its glorious years 1975-1984 to ensure co-ordination at the village level and optiumum performance with the co-operation of the village community. It may well be that some of the tasks taken on during these years by the CEC Administration could have been handled by a Community Development Council. Nevertheless, credit is due to the Catholic Mission for the success of the project while it was in charge, the result of hard work particularly on the part of the indefatigable Sister Carmel Tuite who secured external funding and guided internal management and the execution of the project's programmes in the community.

An Advisory Committee

Fundamental to the establishment of the Betty Carew Centre was its involvement in local life. The Centre started in one main multi-purpose hall with an office and a store attached. It expanded over the years, to offer sleeping accommodation with ten beds, flush toilet facilities and an additional room which was used as a clinic. Recent additional facilities include a multi-purpose hall and a sizeable «bari» which is now temporarily being used as a nursery school. These buildings and facilities have made it possible for the residential training of women and for seminars and workshops to be conducted for various organizations. From time to time, they are made available to the United Methodist Church to provide a «Centre for Retreat» for the wives of its pastors and women members of the Church.

To help attain its objectives, the Centre set up an advisory Committee including local personalities. The Committee helps to plan, implement, monitor and evaluate the various training activities which take place at the Centre. It deals with problems of general management. It also liaises between the project and the United Methodist Church (UMC) Conference in Freetown through the Co-ordinator of the United Methodist Women's Organization who is a member of the Advisory Committee and its responsible for directing requests for financial assistance to the Conference authorities as well as to the United Christian Council of Sierra Leone (UCC), the Centre's major donors.

One drawback in the Centre's organizational structure is that the local Advisory Committee's requests for financial assistance are not always given immediate attention by the UMC and UCC authorities in Freetown. This seems to slow down project activities and the achievements of the desired outcomes.

The Need for a Structure for Participatory Planning

There would seem to be the need to extend the idea of the Community Development Council (CDC), which has worked so well at Bunumbu, from the central village to the District within the national development plan. Representation from village community CDCs brought together in a body representing several village communities will be in a position to deliberate upon the budgets of rural communities in the District, choice of priorities and measures to ensure the co-ordination and harmonization of district programme activities. Such a bigger body which may well constitute a District Development Committee within the Regional Development Council could report to the administrative authorities of the Distrct on the preparation and implementation of projects and provide a basis for administrative decisions.

What is proposed here is a management strategy which will have a three-fold purpose:

- the implementation and supervision of local projects proposed at community level and carried out with community participation;
- a fair allocation of district resources including financial support to local communities for community development projects; and
- effective accountability at all levels.

Village-School Community Relations

Curriculum Development

The curriculum development exercise of the Bunumbu Project got underway in 1978. The aim was not only to develop a rurally-biased primary school curriculum but also to produce work-oriented modules for facilitating learning. However, only a handful of curriculum materials (mainly in Social Studies and Language Arts), some skills modules and children's booklets (mainly in the community language, Mende) were produced in the first few years. Subsequently, some of these materials had to be abandoned, and others revised.

Some major decisions needed to be taken after a careful study of needs before effective work could begin. Two seminars were organized in September and November 1987 on primary school curriculum development. Subsequently, an ad hoc curriculum development sterling committee was formed comprising representatives of all bodies concerned with curriculum development, including the Institute of Education. The seminars and meetings of curriculum workers devised a systematic procedure for the writing of units of the required curriculum.

Training sessions were then organized, which produced a core of curriculum writers, many of whom were pilot school teachers and college students who had had no prior training in curriculum development activities. Subject panels were formed and a further series of training workshops conducted. These subject panels consisted of college lecturers, college students, selected pilot school teachers, and professional staff of the Institute of Education. From them were formed a number of writing teams who met regularly and initially at mini-pilot schools and subsequently, during weekends and vacations, at the Bunumbu Teachers College.

Professional staff of the Institute of Education and of Njala University College served as Resource Personnel, and staff of the other teacher training colleges were, on occasions, given observers' status to writing workshop sessions. By January 1980, the mechnism put in place by the Project had produced 110 instructional units for pilot school teachers of classes I, II and III, 27 skill modules, 15 booklets, and a miscellany of other materials for both teachers and community members.

Following the recommendations of a Tripartite Review Mission in 1980 of the Government, Unesco and UNDP to accord top priority to curriculum development and experimentation, certain adjustments to the overall organization of the curriculum development activities were made. Curriculum writers' workshops were intensified; they were held more frequently on the college campus rather than at pilot schools. Curriculum evaluation was associated directly with the curriculum writing programme. Resource personnel were invited to assist at curriculum writing and evaluation workshops. Honoraria were offered as incentives to them as well as to all persons, college staff and students, pilot school teachers and resource persons who participated in curriculum development activities, thus stabilizing attendance patterns at these workshops. The cost was borne by the Project.

Consequent upon these adjustments, the end of the long vacation of 1980 saw the development of syllabuses for class I to class VII in nine primary school subjects, 58 additional instructional units and three sets of curriculum evaluation questionnaires which were used by teachers, observers (including supervisors and resource persons) and head teachers during the 1980/1984 academic year. By the beginning of the 1980/1981 academic year the curriculum development and evaluation processes had become well-established. By March 1981 - and in accordance with a recommendation of the 1980 Tripartite Review Mission - six Honda motorcycles had been made available to college staff members to expedite their visits to pilot schools and to improve communication between the college and the network of pilot schools.

By May 1981, when the Project had its final evaluation by an External Review Mission, the project had produced, in addition to the syllabuses in nine subjects for class I to class VII, 200 instructional units and revised forms of the evaluation questionnaires. The curriculum materials were being introduced in all 20 pilot schools within the Project area.

In 1982, a comprehensive evaluation of the primary school curriculum component of the Bunumbu Project was undertaken jointly by the staff of the Institute of Education and of Bunumbu Teachers College. In general, the results indicated a positive trend in the appropriateness of the instructional units for pupils and teachers.

As one would expect, suggestions for the revision of the units were made. The evaluation team noted the shortage of home economics teachers and the inadequate supply of teaching aids, equipment and tools. It recommended, among others, that:

- more home economics teachers should be recruited and trained;
- curriculum activities should be continued; and
- the activity should include sessions on the production and use of improvised teaching materials utilizing the Instructional Resource Centre and the village workshop.

It can be said that the primary school curriculum developed for the Bunumbu Project based on local environment and involving the use of the mother tongue in the first three years of schooling was an innovation of considerable importance for education in Sierra Leone.

In contrast, there was no systematic curriculum development activities at the Pujehun and Yonibana community education centres. Curriculum development, in any case, was never an objective of the centres. The focus, as mentioned earlier, was on skilled manpower development that facilitates the generation of income-earning activities. The training sessions, informal and non-formal, made use of curriculum materials which were either designed by individual tutors or borrowed from other sources.

Teacher Training and Retraining

Within the Bunumbu Project, the primary school teacher is expected to be the pivot of integrated rural development programmes. The Project offers two levels of training leading to the Sierra Leone Teacher's Certificate (TC) and the Sierra Leone Higher Teacher's Certificate (HTC), and a third which provides continuing in-service teacher training.

The minimum entry qualification to the TC programme is the completion of five years in a secondary school, at the end of which the candidate should have passed the General Certificate of Education (GCE) «O» Level in at least two subjects including English language. Candidates who do not possess this qualification but have had up to five years' teaching experience in a primary school may be admitted after passing a college entrance examination.

The TC course is often referred to as the «New» TC because, up to the present, it is unique to Bunumbu Teachers College and markedly different from the old long-established pattern followed by all other teacher training institutions. This new Teachers' Certificate course arose from the recommendation of the 1980 Tripartite Review Mission that the content and methodology for teacher education should be made more consistent with the basic concepts of the skills and competencies expected of a rurally-oriented primary school teacher.

The course is of three-year duration. In the first year, the emphasis is on skill development tasks for community education. These include basic skills (reading, writing and manipulative skills), attitude-formation skills, and study-academic skills. The second year is devoted mainly to content achievement, whilst the third and final year focusses on professional achievement for community education.

A candidate for the HTC course should possess the GCE «O» Level in at least four subjects including English Language. The course is designed mainly for teachers with demonstrated ability for leadership and teaching in the rural areas. It is organized in two parts, the academic and the professional. The academic component includes mathematics with emphasis on statistics and measurement and such practical areas in mathematics as are seen to be relevant to rural development programmes. The professional component includes principles and methods of education, leadership training, rural sociology, evaluation techniques, simple research methodology, and the psychology of the adult learner.

The course also includes three weeks of observation and participation in rural development programmes in the schools during the first year, six weeks in the second and final year. At the end of the course, the student is expected to produce a directed research report on some community problem.

The Bunumbu programme started with a one-year in-service training of the headmasters of the 20 pilot schools with a view to sensitizing them to the needs of the rural environment in which their schools were located. It was hoped that, by the end of the year, the headmasters would be well equipped to become the direct link between the project and their communities. During the year the headmasters were brought into direct contact with the extension workers in the areas through seminars and public meetings, where common strategies for co-operation and integration were worked out.

The Project now regularly organizes in-service courses, some residential, for teachers of the 20 pilot schools and skilled individuals from the community. In this way, weavers, carpenters and carvers are introduced to the problems of adult learning and how to tackle them.

As regards the Community Education Centres at Pujehun and Yonibana, the Ministry of Education employs skilled instructors in the different areas of need, among them graduates of the centres themselves, upon the recommendations of the Directors. Orientation workshops are periodically held for them. Their further education is part of staff programmes of the Centres. For example, a member of staff of the Pujehun Centre, who is a graduate of the Centre, was able to complete a Diploma Course in Textile Art and Design at the African Literature Bureau in Kitwe, Zambia. A second, who was a community developer with an HTC Primary Certificate from Bunumbu Teachers College, benefitted from a short course overseas and is back at the Centre. Two previous Directors of the CEC Yonibana also received six months training at Mindole, Zambia.

Impact of Community/Village Schools on Rural Development

Income and Household Amenities

The average household (family) size of the 50 households in the Bunumbu, Pujehun and Yonibana Project areas are respectively 8.04, 5.7, and 8.46. The adult-children (0-17 years) ratios were 1:0.83, 1:0.75 and 1:0.82 indicating that (a) there were more adults than children in the households in all the three project areas and (b) emigration of children to seek better education or job opportunities elsewhere is a possible explanation.

The distribution of sources of income and the proportions earned are in the table below.

Project	Sources of Income (percentages)		
	Agricultural Production	Day Labour (non-Agricultural	Salary-earning, e.g. business, professions
Bunumbu	26	30(18)	44
Pujehun	54	4(0)	42
Yonibana	58	0	42

The figures suggest that in the Pujehun and Yonibana Project area, in contrast to the Bunumu Project area, a slightly higher proportion of income was derived from agricultural production than from services involving salary, business and profession. The existence of a long-established teacher training college and associated secondary and primary schools at the heart of the Bunumbu Project area may well be the reason why more income was derived from salary-earning services than from agricultural production. The agricultural production in this study area was more subsistence farming and gardening than cash-cropping as is shown in the table below, as well as the degree of participation in community development programmes by 50 selected households from each Project area.

Project	Participation in Community/School Programmes		Membership of Organisations		Agricultural Production	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Subsist-ence	Cash Crops
Bunumbu	22	28	30	20	34	16
Pujehun	10	40	40	10	26	24
Yonibana	10	40	25	25	25	25

The table shows a higher degree of participation in community/school programmes by households within the influence of the Bunumbu Project than in the other two project areas.

As regards a number of household amenities, as many as 16 per cent of the households in the Pujehun Project area and 12 per cent in the Yonibana Project area were found to use only «panlap», a low-cost device of tin with wick immersed in kerosene, as a source of illumination at night. No household in the Bunumbu Project area was using panlap only as a source of light. A very high percentage had electricity.

In contrast to the Yonibana Project area where there was a toilet (open or covered) in every household, the situation was different at Bunumbu and Pujehun. Eight per cent of the households in the Bunumbu Project area and 16 per cent in the Pujehun Project area had no toilet.

Finally, 30 per cent of the households in the Bunumbu Project area, 46 per cent in the Pujehun Project area, and 16 per cent in the Yonibana Project area did not have books of any sort. The proportion of households possessing novels was highest in the Bunumbu Project area, 40 per cent; that for the Yonibana Project area was 26 per cent, and for the Pujehun Project area was 20 per cent.

School attendance among school-age children

The Bunumbu Project area has the highest percentage of school-age children actually going to school (about 90.4 per cent). The corresponding figures for Pujehun and Yonibana Project areas are 44.4 per cent and 80.5 per cent respectively. The influence of the long-established functioning teacher training college at Bunumbu may account for the Bunumbu Project area having the highest proportion not only of household heads with tertiary education, but also of school-age children actually attending school than is the case in Pujehun and Yonibana Project areas. No Teacher Training College exists at Pujehun and Yonibana.

However, there seemed to be four reasons for the relatively high proportion of school-age children (6-17 years) in all the three project areas not going to school: children's own unwillingness to go to school; household head's preference for arabic-learning; inability to pay due to low family income; and unwillingness to spare the children from work (particularly agricultural productivity) which contributes to the family income.

Views on Benefits

Of heads of households who were asked about the benefits their children had received from the village/community school, 28 per cent in the Yonibana Project area reported that their children have received no benefits. Corresponding figures for the Pujehun and Bunumbu Project areas were respectively 14 and 2 per cent. Eight per cent in Pujehun Project area and 4 per cent in the Bunumbu Project area had no answer to give.

Other responses were explicit on the benefits derived. In the Bunumbu Project area, the benefits were said to include «better educational facilities»; «opportunity to go on to a secondary school»; «good basic education»; «good education»; «ability to speak and write English»; and «agricultural education». In the Pujehun Project area, the benefits derived were reported to include such occupational skills as needlework, tailoring, gara-making, typing, sewing, carpentry and animal husbandry, and the ability to read and write. For the households in the Yonibana Project area, the benfits were food supply (40 per cent), cheap medical facilities, health education, new skills including basket-making and nursery education.

Forty-four per cent of households in the Bunumbu Project area, 80 per cent in the Pujehun and Yonibana Project areas had never participated in the village/community school programmes. Twenty per cent of households in the Bunumbu Project area, 18 per cent in the Pujehun Project area and 68 per cent in the Yonibana Project area reported that they had derived no benefits from the village/community school programmes. The benefits derived included adult literacy, occupational and agricultural skills and opportunity to attend seminars.

Heads of households were asked for suggestions for programmes for adults which would be beneficial. The responses were many and varied as follows: adult literacy (Bunumbu 46 per cent; Pujehun 54 per cent; Yonibana 22 per cent) and skill development training, occupational and agricultural (Bunumbu 32 per cent; Pujehun 36 per cent; Yonibana 36 per cent) were paramount. The occupational skills were understood to include carpentry, poultry, sewing, typing, gara-dyeing and basket making. Other programmes suggested were health programmes.

Outcomes of Projects and their Contributions to National Goals

The Bunumbu Project

In the Bunumbu Project area, a spectacular progress in community development and educational improvement can be seen in Bunumbu itself and in the pilot communities. Bunumbu township continues to undergo a major transformation in the size of the population and in the number and improved quality of houses being built.

Inspite of initial constraints, the Project has yielded promising results. These include the production and implementation of (a) primary school curriculum materials in the pilot schools which have been tested and evaluated, and (b) an entirely innovative teacher education programme at Bunumbu Teachers' College with emphasis on productive work and subject integration. An Instructional Resource Centre established at the College provided a much-needed backstop. Further, an Innovative Rural Technology Laboratory has been built in Bunumbu to provide a community blacksmithing workshop for the 20 pilot school villages from which new working tools and repair services are made available to the community.

The self-help projects launched by the Community Development Councils symbolize another array of achievements by the Project. They comprise not only Centres for the day care of children, for mothers, and for adult education but also improved sanitary facilities, market places and roads.

The Community Education Centres of Pujehun and Yonibana

The Centres have only partially attained their objective of fostering the occupational skills that will facilitate the generation of income activities in their villages. They could have achieved much more with careful planning to avoid problems that cause a drop in project activities. The skill training at the Community Education Centre, Pujehun, has been in the area of agriculture, home economics, weaving and textile work, animal husbandry, secretarial and business methods, basketry, pot making, catering and home management, nutrition and mother care. Occasional adult education classes are organized. At the Community Education Centre, Yonibana, the emphasis has been on skill development programmes for women in nutrition and child care, sewing, crochet, embroidery, bead work, home making and cookery.

Given the time and finance, the two Centres might undertake a formative study of their graduates to determine how effectively they function in their local communities. The information that results from such a study will be crucial for re-examining the Centres' objectives, approach and methods for future planning.

Programme Linkages and Educational Planning in the Future

Present Practice and Possibilities

While it is recognized that close linkages should be established between the formal and non-formal education systems in Sierra Leone, the non-formal system manifests a marked superiority in terms not only of relevance, functionality and effectiveness but also of the cost-benefit ratio. If Sierra Leone is to achieve «Education for All», the necessary educational structures to achieve the goal must be developed without suggesting the total overhaul of the present educational system. What is needed is not the development of alternative non-formal systems but the adaptation of the formal system to make it more relevant to, and more functional within, development efforts with a view to achieving the integration of the two systems into a truly comprehensive system of life-long education and learning.

In the three projects under study, and particularly in the Bunumbu Project, primary schools have a special relationship with their communities. They are the community centres for people in the vicinity while the communities and their resources - physical, material, human and conceptual - are the teaching and learning materials for the pupils. The interactions are mutually reinforcing and enriching and can be summarized as follows:

School to Community

- Education services
- Community development
- Availability of physical resources like classrooms for community use

Community to School

- Labour
- Skills and knowledge
- Management and consultative assistance and services

The main objective in linking schools with their communities is to forge a union between education and life and productive work. This can be achieved mainly through the involvement of the pupils in meaningful and productive work and community development projects like planting oil palm trees, laying out rice farms, cassava plantations and vegetable gardens. Head teachers do recognize and appreciate the age-long problem of parents who criticize such productive activities because in their view they send their children to school «to learn book» and not «to farm». Attempts to minimize the problem include inviting parents and guardians to the schools to teach the pupils how to farm, plan, fertilize and harvest and helping them to share in the tasks of development as school/community developers.

The formal and non-formal education systems are generally viewed by the formal educators as two opposing educational modes and usually see no reason for integrating them. It is their view that the non-formal system is not the «real» thing but the «maverick of the educational family». Non-formal education, geared towards skill and attitude development in Sierra Leone, must be accorded a parity of esteem with the formal education system in a conscious effort to integrate the two systems.

At the most basic level, integration can occur through the sharing of facilities. Money and resources are readily invested in formal educational institutions without their being put to maximum use. For example, school buildings can offer formal school programmes in the mornings, alternative re-entry and «second chance» school equivalency courses for primary and secondary school dropouts in the afternoons and adult education classes in the evenings. Similarly, other buildings in the community, like community centres, Church and other religious halls, can be used for both formal and non-formal adult education programmes. In such ways, physical resources can be used more productively and the formal and non-formal educational systems brought more closely together in a total life-long learning system.

The formal and non-formal education system in Sierra Leone can also be linked through the sharing of personnel. Meaningful linkages can be established if (a) teachers share their expertise in non-formal learning situations; (b) parents, community leaders and members are recognized as educators and communicators and are integrated into education programmes; and (c) non-formal

educators such as development and extension workers are invited to teach in schools. Such linkages can present several challenges to the community. They call for attitudes towards education which stress and focus on learning rather than on status, achievement and credentials. Because of the traditional separation of school and community, community members may be unfamiliar with the modes and methodologies of the formal system. They may well benefit from opportunities to learn about schools and their own potential roles in them. At the same time formal school teachers may discover that non-formal programmes and their participants require different approaches from those used in the formal system. Future teachers would, in time, if adult education and development courses are made curricular components in training colleges, acquire a range of teaching skills that include both formal/pedagogical, teacher/learner interaction and more participatory, dialogic and interpersonal non-formal methods. Student-teachers will be trained, as in the Bunumbu Teachers College and other teacher training colleges in Sierra Leone (thanks to the experience of the Bunumbu Project) to become both school teachers and community animators.

The growing demand for mass education and the widespread recognition that formal education must become functional in our national development efforts have led to a search for alternative teaching and learning methods. Making formal education more flexible and relevant involves the introduction of non-formal methodologies such as dialogue, role-play, drama, simulation, participatory group discussions and problem-solving. Greater flexibility and adaptability in the formal system may result in de-emphasising grades, credits and diplomas, in short, the «Cult of the Certificate». The content of basic education programmes, such as literacy and numeracy, need to include functional knowledge and skills like agricultural and health concepts and practices.

Although non-formal/adult education is recognized as a powerful tool for mobilizing human resources to solve the seemingly intractable twin problems of poverty and underdevelopment, the many devoted efforts made by Government and non-governmental agencies alike do not seem to bear much fruit. There are many and diverse adult education programmes going on in Sierra Leone, many of which bear no «education» label, but nonetheless contain vital and significant educational components. People are not only unaware of these «heroic» efforts but also do not regard development programmes as educational programmes in the widest sense. For example, the health worker making his rounds; the midwife or the traditional attendant at birth conferring with pregnant and lactating mothers; the para-professional visiting a village to help install a safe water supply system - all these are not simply «professionals» but are also educators and communicators. The understanding of «technical», «professional», and development messages and packages is better achieved when there is integration (used here it means the combination of naturally related parts into a cohesive and unified whole to enhance their effectiveness) of the «information», «education» and «communication» components.

For formal and non-formal systems to contribute to national and rural development, it is essential that their personnel plan and organize programmes and activities in conjunction with other development agencies. It is a must for all development agencies to have in-built support communication and education components to improve socio-economic conditions especially among rural communities. A Development Support Communication (DSC) capability within an agency can well improve the effectiveness of its programmes by helping to change the knowledge, attitudes and behaviour of its staff and its intended programme benefiticiaries along desired directions.

Problems and the Future Constraints

The implementation of the three projects was hampered by many problems. The problems varied in kind and degree according to the setting and type of projects. Some of these barriers in implementation can be attributed to planning while others were external factors which could not have been anticipated. Even with all the careful planning which preceded the implementation of the Bunumbu Project, certain revisions became necessary, for example, the adjustment that was undertaken following the recommendations of the 1980 Tripartite Review Mission to accord top priority to curriculum development and experimentation.

However, the three projects - Bunumbu, Pujehun and Yonibana - seem to have had three sets of problems that could have been avoided or minimized with careful planning. They were due to:

- weaknesses in the organizational infrastructure or management of the projects;
- dependence on external sources of assistance notably financial and technical; and
- local factors such as inability to motivate local community, job dissatisfaction and lack of commensurate incentives to teachers.

The development occurring in Bunumbu and in the 20 pilot school communities shows every promise of continuing. To that end, the Government of Sierra Leone embarked on a Four-Year National Dissemination Project, a UNDP-assisted project entitled «SIL/85/009 - The National Dissemination of Innovative Primary School Curriculum adapted to the local environment in Sierra Leone». The project was to be executed in the period 1985-1988 in two phases. The first phase, «Implementation and Training», was scheduled to last from July 1985 to June 1987, and planned to provide technical assistance for the training of personnel in four Teacher Training Colleges, the Bo, Freetown, Makeni and Portloko Teachers Colleges. The second phase, «Consolidation and Evaluation», planned to last from July 1987 to June 1988, would consolidate community development, teacher education curriculum development, and training activities that have been implemented. It would identify and implement additional activities deemed to be necessary as well as evaluate the progress of the project to date.

It was expected that, after the four-year operational period, amongst other things, a network of about 40 primary community education centres (schools), ten around each of the four selected colleges, would be carrying out a new work-oriented curriculum, including such subjects as home economics, agricultural science, arts and crafts and adult education, with the co-operation of their communities.

The inability to sustain project activities at the Community Education Centres at Pujehun and Yonibana is an experience worth learning from. It necessitates a formal evaluation to provide a feedback to Educational Administrators and Planners on the basis of which plans can be made to reactivate programme activities to their fullest.

For education to play a more active role in rural development, the process of research and planning must move together, hand-in-hand, and involve the rural people. This statement implies that the community must be involved at every stage, from the identification of community needs to the planning, implementation and evaluation of project activities. Research on rural development and processes of identification of needs should not begin with an a priori notion of what rural development is. They must take place in the context of rural people's own perception of improved living, and with due cognizance of the many-faceted nature of the kind of integrated rural development that would have the chance of meeting identified needs adequately. Hence the need also of ensuring that available multi-disciplinary personnel from among agricultural extension workers, community development workers, school teachers and pupils, local experts (craftsmen and women), civic leaders, and voluntary agencies are brought together to think out, plan and give a lead in the implementation of activities.

A final remark pertains to the need for careful planning in the general application of successful pilot rural development programmes. Unplanned expansion can lead to serious socio-economic, social and political difficulties, and frustration. With this in mind, the National Dissemination Project, mentioned above, has a National Project Steering Committee with the responsibility of guiding and monitoring the planning of activities for each college through 1988 through the regular meeting of liaison personnel and principals of all the teaching training colleges concerned.

III. FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The emergence of Mao Tse-tung, Pedro Orata and Julius Nyerere as principal actors in the evolution of educational measures concerned with development in the rural areas of China, the Philippines and Tanzania is cause for reflection on a major thought of one of the early regional Conferences of Ministers of Education, Addis Ababa 1961. The thought was summed up in the words (Report: Annex IV.p.55):

> The type of man who will govern .... tomorrow is potentially contained in the curricula of today.

The words were meant to convey the prevailing concern for greater relevance to societal, as well as individual, needs of what was taught and learnt in and out of school in view of the fact that many a leader is in the making, either deliberately or by default, as he passes through and out of one educational institution after another.

Mao empowered, and Nyerere effected, change of the system - two kinds of roles which are given to few to play. Orata initiated change within the system; and that could well be the part which education should enable many a product of the system to play in whatever leadership function he is called upon to perform.

Nyerere and Orata were human examples of the conviction that self-help educational institutions are possible at all levels of the educational system and, indeed, necessary in every country especially the developing ones. «It is a matter of leadership which is abundant in every country and not, necessarily, of money which is scarce everywhere» (P. T. Orata: Self-help Barrio High Schools, SEAMEO Regional Innotech Center, 1972, p. 19). In any case, «A poor man does not use money as weapon» (Tanzania Arusha Declaration).

It is the function of education - in its formal and non-formal systems, interdisciplinary in approach, multi-dimensional in influence and responsive to specific challenges within the human and physical environment - to nurture the development of the individual whatever his origins, to make an effective contribution to change within society as well as to its maintenance in the role either of a leader or a follower.

Contributions are more likely to be effective if measures promulgated by the leadership succeed, on the one hand, in evoking informed participation from those who follow and, on the other hand, in making accountability essential in the work of those who lead.

The phenomenon of revolt among youth within and outside second and third level educational institutions was a sizeable part of the concerns that informed the effort of the late sixties, through the seventies, to rethink and reform education and to legislate accordingly - some inspired by student unrest, others to avoid it, and still others to make education more accessible, relevant and productive. A greater heed would have to be paid in educational legislation to the challenge from young adults, in rural as well as urban areas, of whom students form the vanguard not because it is their privilege but because they constitute a coherent and organized body within whatever following leadership may hope to have and because their training gives them the intellectual equipment to express their ideas and to protest at times.

Rustication and temporary closure of educational institutions are weapons with which to react to unwelcome protest. But they are not enough. What is required is a set of long-term measures which help to anticipate and contain protest and to turn it into an indicator in evaluation. The six studies under consideration barely touch on the subject, their point of reference having been the school at the first or second level of education in general and the village school in particular.

The more remote a primary school is from large concentrations of people and from normal infrastructional facilities the more important is its role and, indeed, the greater should be its potential in providing a centre for the continuing cultural development of the small community in which it is placed, irrespective of its own disability of small enrolment or reduced number of classes. In that context the school cannot be said to be uneconomical or non-cost-effective; for its value, with careful planning and administration, ceases to be measurable in terms of dollars only (Yugoslavia).

Planning the learning experiences, methods and techniques that are brought together on behalf of, and by, those being educated - in short the curriculum - for the small school, however, needs to take cognizance of the desirable objective of developing a common primary school curriculum with a rural emphasis on the one hand and with optional components covering urban learning needs to be substituted or added where appropriate on the other hand. The important point is that the child, wherever he is taught, should be stretched by the demand on his intelligence to the extent possible (Sierra Leone).

There would seem to be a case for the village school which is working to a national Educational Law to have the freedom to adjust a proportion of its curricular activities to the demands and needs of its immediate human and physical environment by way of putting greater emphasis on, or giving more time to, what is already in the prescribed curriculum. The flexibility could well be extended to the inclusion of entirely new topics because the environment makes that necessary (Yugoslavia).

There would also be the need to ensure that innovative arrangements to make the school more responsive to the needs of the environment do not succumb to the pressure of fitting them into what has turned out to be the Procrustean bed of the formal system of education with its rewards in examination results and movement from one level to another without reference to occupational opportunities (Botswana).

Limited resources and the shere size of the problem of providing education as well as other basic needs calls for a measure of pragmatism which the Chinese and other experiences would seem to recommend; there is a place for a trilogy of schools in such circumstances - the Key Full Time Primary and Secondary Schools to provide a visible network of examples which could be followed in schemes of educational expansion; the Simply-equipped School at another level, which is firmly established on the reality of scarce resources, needs of individual and social living, and the ever-growing demand for school places; and, thirdly, the familiar type of school, the Developing School, with some way to go to reach the quality of the Key School. In fact, this is the pattern in many a country, which is unplanned. To recognize that reality, legislate to accommodate it, plan and administer to improve it, is to exercise pragmatism in the cause of education (China).

Such plans for the school require to be complemented by, and interwoven with, plans for out-of-school education for young and old, such as part-time peasant education, rural science and technology education, etc. all of which could begin in an experimentation with non-coercive and unbureaucratic forms of participatory planning from below, based on a voluntary mobilization of the rural population (China).

Concurrently, measures have to be taken «to halve illiteracy, wipe it out, and raise the literacy level of those who are no longer illiterate». This implies preventing children from becoming illiterate, a reduction of the illiteracy rate among illiterate adults, and continuing education in a process of life-long education (China).

Inevitably, such exercises bring the planner and administrator face to face with the intractable and perennial issue of the transition from basic education needed by everybody to the next stage of education which a minority with progressively increasing numbers would enter. There is always an inherent element of discrimination in the situation which provides better opportunities for the minority and seldom succeeds in satisfying every member of the majority especially in the rural areas. Nor is the fact appreciated, as much as it ought to be, that rural youth in general spend more in time, money and energy than their counterparts in urban centres for the same educational opportunity (Philippines).

The harmful effects of the total predicament of rural youths can only be known through unceasing monitoring and continual search for a remedy, which would seem to lie in the judicious balancing of several solutions: complete, full-time primary education; complete, part-time or 'appropriate rhythm' primary education; incomplete education for children and adults; and special teaching programmes for young people ... especially those who have never previously attended school» (E. Faure: Learning to Be, Paris 1972, p.193).

Such monitoring and search for remedies as well as research into other bottlenecks in the entire national system of education should be ready to feed their results into in-depth reviews of the system at certain critical points in the national history. The aim would be to establish a broad national consensus

on guidelines for educational development in the shape of a better-researched Education Law or Barrio High School Charter or Arusha Declaration.

There is always room, however, for the innovative experimentation, which similarly begins at a critical point in national history but without the glare of publicity, whose raison d'être is a felt need and the willingness of members of the community to support it into fruition first, duplication second, a model for expansion third, and a basis for an education law last (Philippines).

There is the need to avoid the all too common practice of pondering over experimentation with a recital of a long list of problems and difficulties, which planners and administrators are all too well aware of, after which no one would dare make a start. Waiting in poor communities in many a rural area is the moral energy, imagination and determination of thousands of villagers and their children, which require the inspiration of an Orata or a Nyerere to spark into enlightening self-help activities for finding solutions to their problems. Care needs to be exercised, however, that the inspiration has its roots not only in a sense of history but also in researched information of unquestionable accuracy on indigenous ways of tackling such problems (Philippines, Tanzania).

Such an experimentation, and in the circumstances recommended by implication, would be a part of a number of bottom-up methods of planning in contrast to the familiar top-down decision-making from the centre which can easily alienate rural people. Whichever type of programme is contemplated for tackling the problems of rural development - whether it is the production-oriented, the poverty-alleviating, the project-based or the long-term rural transforming - preference should be given to the non-coercive and unbureaucratic form of planning from below, which is based on a voluntary mobilization of the rural population and relies heavily on participation and continuing self-education of both the leaders and the led (Botswana).

Planning along such lines is more likely to ensure that school extra-curricular activities, in one form or another, meet local community needs and underline in a visible way the importance of school-community relations.

An essential feature of such participatory planning is the preparedness to listen and hear local views on education, the changes taking place and the kind of education parents want for their children. Using the established mechanism for exchanging views within a rural community in order to discover how best to proceed with planning may well be the best starting point (Botswana).

Once the planning is completed and implementation begins, there should be a continuing dialogue between local communities and central authorities in an attempt to secure mutual understanding of purposes at every important stage in the process of implementation (Botswana).

A network of Community Development Councils which have live contact with a National Advisory Board that has advisory functions linking it with the Central authorities of the kind in operation in Sierra Leone in connection with the Bunumbu Project may well indicate a starting point for putting in place the necessary mechanism for securing mutual understanding and maintaining it (Sierra Leone).

The guiding principle within such a mechanism for planning, implementing and evaluating whatever is done for rural areas should be the two-fold thesis that runs through all the studies, though specially emphasized by the Philippine paper:

(a) Rural people want and are entitled to equal opportunities for schooling whose curriculum is constantly being shaped more realistically to national needs; and

(b) Education laws which are formulated to achieve the ends implied should be anchored to the doctrine of self-help based on the experience that progress can best be attained if people learn to help themselves

APPENDIX I

Summary Version of Study of Measures in China

I. INTRODUCTION

China's rural education cries out for immediate reform and further development for several reasons, among them those it shares with the other five countries and quoted above.

Economic change in rural areas provides a second set of factors pointing to the necessity for reform and development of rural education. The development of China's rural economy has accelerated since the adoption of the contract system of responsibility which gave impetus to the process of transformation from traditional to modern agriculture. Within such changing conditions, farm people stand in urgent need of new, and in particular, scientific knowledge to enhance their skills and capabilities while the entire rural workforce, of which they are an important sector, needs to improve its politico-economic and cultural background for living in the modern world.

There is a third set of reasons for the priority given to rural educational reform and development. In China today, each year finds around 30% of the primary school graduates and nearly 60% of the lower secondary school graduates unable to enter the next level of education. Of these, over 90% are from rural areas. This situation will probably not change in the near future, except that the proportion of primary school graduates entering lower secondary school will rise gradually.

The opening ahead of such young people who cannot continue their formal education is either a life in the farming community or in some unskilled job, albeit with some learning but no professional skills. Something more than what the rural school can currently give them is required to make them acceptable members of the farming community. So far, though, there is a persistent tendency to neglect rural education or to consider it as an extraneous factor in general economic development.

The paragraphs below on the legislation, administration and financial measures taken in China to facilitate access to rural education show how educational thought with a legal basis is looking for ways of improving rural education and helping it to play a part in rural development.

II. EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION

Provisions of the Compulsory Education Law of the People's Republic of China, which apply directly or indirectly to rural education, include nine-year compulsory education, elimination of illiteracy, measures on collecting additional funds for rural education, and on the management of general education. This Law, adopted in June 1986, sums up past piecemeal legislation and decisions with regard to the popularization of education and demonstrates the country's determination to develop an educational system of uniform quality. It is China's educational programme for the future.

APPENDIX I (Cont'd)

Popularization of education

The Compulsory Education Law sees a step-by-step and realistic approach as the only practicable way forward in view of the diversity of conditions and the dimensions of the problems. Hence the two articles of the Law:

(a) «All provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities directly under the Central Government should define the steps necessary to improve compulsory education according to local conditions with regard to the state of development of the economy and culture».

(b) «Compulsory education should be divided into two stages: primary and lower secondary. The first objective is to popularize primary education and then proceed to the popularization of lower secondary education».

The need to understand the specific conditions prevailing in China, the scale of the problems involved and the importance of a realistic approach cannot be over-emphasized. The sheer size of the country and the differences in stages of development within it, as already mentioned, largely determine which standards shall be applied in the immediate future, the scale and speed of reform and the actual content of the school programmes. Accordingly, it is expected that by:

1990

(a) nine-year compulsory basic education, primary and lower secondary, would have been provided in the highly-developed areas of the country;

(b) primary education would have been expanded throughout the country and made universal.

1995

(c) a vigorous start would have been made to extend lower secondary education in the country; and by

1999

(d) strong efforts would have been made to develop and improve primary education.

The strong point about China's Educational Law in action is the broad goals and targets it provides centrally while encouraging local authorities to develop plans truly suited to the local conditions and not indiscriminately copy from the experience of others.

In the immediate future the major efforts will be put into making primary education universal and stable, while gradually developing lower secondary education. In this way, the foundations of education would be strong for the structure they would have to carry. Experience has shown that unless primary education is consolidated, the development of lower secondary education, in fact, acts to the detriment of primary education putting, as it does, a squeeze on funds, teachers and facilities for primary schools.

APPENDIX I (Cont'd)

The Constitution of the People's Republic of China stipulates that the nation's citizens should enjoy the right and be under obligation to receive education. It has not yet been possible to fulfil this ideal, particularly in rural areas and especially for girls. Many who enter the education system drop out at an early stage. Particularly is this true among minority groups and in remote and poverty-stricken areas for a variety of reasons including parental attitudes, practices of employing children at an early age as well as lack of facilities or planned arrangements to provide them.

The Compulsory Education Law attacks this whole set of problems by clearly defining the responsibilities of government, society and the family as follows. The government is responsible for enforcing the Education Law and supervising educational action in accordance with the guidelines it issues; financing; assisting the poorer and minority areas; assuring teacher-training and administration; and ecnouraging local school management and community contributions. Society has the responsibility of seeing to it that the various types of schools provided for in the law are in operation and that it contributes to their functioning in accordance with state guidelines and for local benefit. Families are responsible for sending their children or wards to the school at the appropriate age and for allowing them to finish their education according to the stipulations of the law. The law prescribes both public opprobrium and education for parents who do not comply with the law and businesses which employ under-age children and thereby keep them from school. Continuing breach of the law in this regard by employers is met by certain prescribed penalties including the loss of a business licence.

The law provides that tuition should be free, a provision which is indispensable if education is going to be popularized and the educational rights of children are to be protected. However, although tuition has been said to be free for a number of years, state funds have not been sufficient to make this possible; and parents and/or the community have had to meet certain expenses. Shortage of funds remains a major problem. The Compulsory Education Law recognizes it and, with the requisite realism, states that sundry charges should in principle gradually cease to devolve on parents, leaving the speed of reaching this goal to be determined at the local level and in accordance with the financial situation of the local government. State subsidies exist to help poorer students; but, except in the poor or minority nationality areas where there are few local primary schools and boarding schools, these are mostly granted to secondary school students who need boarding accommodation if they are to attend school.

In the actual operation of the schools, the watchword is unity in diversity. Local and community responsibility is emphasized and encouraged under government supervision. Accordingly, the law encourages enterprises, institutions and other social forces to run various schools under the unified management of local governments and in accordance with the requirements of national regulations. Giving such responsibility to local entities is designed to bring into full play such latent economic and cultural capacities as can contribute to the improvement of the national economy as a whole. While the state remains the dominant factor in the interest of unity it is only through the full and enthusiastic involvement of cooperatives and teams, factories and enterprises and other local organisations, as well as some financial contributions from non-government sources, that the national educational goals can be achieved.

APPENDIX I (Cont'd)

Further, the principle of combining unity and diversity - and the flexible approach it implies - are being applied under the Education Law to the implementation of a nine-year system. The Law states that the present educational infrastructure is simply not equipped for a sudden transition from the prevailing diverse primary and lower secondary structure of 6-3, 5-4 and 5-3 years to a uniform 6-3 years nor from the present school entry age of 7 years to 6 years, especially in rural areas where universal primary education has not yet been achieved. Local authorities may therefore proceed from the realities of the local situation. Since the 5-3 system prevails in most rural areas, and relatively few children, in any case, attend lower secondary schools; and since it would be impossible to finance, staff and equip a nation-wide nine-year 6-3 system, the 5-3 system is permitted in the interim.

Furthermore, rural schools cannot be established on one model, but rather on the basis of what is feasible within a system with the maximum amount of flexibility. They must be established rationally both in terms of location and organization. Access to them by the maximum number of children must be assured. The service which full-day, boarding, half-day, every-other-day, touring teacher classes can render must be taken into account, due notice being taken of the positive experience of several remote provinces with such flexible forms of primary education over the last twenty years.

Flexibility and diversity are also the key concepts behind funding. The Compulsory Education Law stipulates that «the State Council and local governments at all levels are responsible for raising operating and investment funds required for the implementation of compulsory education». This is an important measure but not easy to implement fully. Both the central and local governments have to make a major concerted effort to raise the necessary funds. Recognizing the leeway there would be between intention and practice by both the central and local governments, the Compulsory Education Law encourages individuals and community organizations to contribute to the running of the schools for which they have increasing responsibility and from which they benefit. In this way it seeks not only to share out the burden and to draw on the strength of local social forces but also to strengthen society's commitment to rural educational development. Past experience has proved that this is both necessary and feasible.

The lack of a sufficient and stable pool of qualified teachers is one of the major barriers to implementing the compulsory education programme. The shortage of qualified teachers is particularly acute in rural areas where, because of the demand, many qualified primary school teachers are called upon to operate as unqualified lower secondary school teachers. To tackle the problem, the Compulsory Education Law requires the state to take measures to strengthen and develop teacher education and to diversify its programmes to include: (a) two-year courses in general colleges and universities, short practice-study training for graduates with the aid of television or through spare-time university courses and entrance for the self-taught by examination; (b) further training facilities to upgrade the qualifications of practising teachers and to attract people qualified in other fields to the teaching profession.

Difficult working and living conditions and, often, a concomitant lack of esteem add to the problem of teacher shortage. The conditions for teachers in rural areas are particularly hard. The result is a steady outflow from the teaching profession. The Compulsory Education Law recognizes this problem, and

APPENDIX I (Cont'd)

makes provision for resolving it. It prescribes a preferential treatment and a higher status for qualified graduates who take up jobs in rural areas; assistance for their housing and children's education; and a merit system for rewarding teachers financially or through the conferment of honours.

The Compulsory Education Law provides for special policies applicable to poverty-stricken districts and minority nationality regions. In these regions the educational foundations are exceptionally weak. The poor people who inhabit them cannot be expected to raise funds for education; and although the government is making great effort to assist, the degree of educational popularization remains low. Of the total minority nationality population of some 67 million, sixty per cent are illiterate or semi-literate. This situation requires special measures, such as the special state subsidies for staffing and financing for which the Compulsory Education Law makes provision. Remedies being applied and planned under the Law include free boarding schools; totally free education (tuition, books, etc.) in local schools; food and clothing subsidies in very poor pastoral areas; better teaching incentives to attract and keep a stable pool; expanded teacher training facilities in these regions; and the organization of mobile teaching groups to support education in these areas.

Development of rural technical, and vocational education

Although technical and vocational education was given a certain priority in the early years of the Republic, there was a fifteen-year hiatus in its development in the sixties and seventies. In 1976, vocational education students were only 1.16% of the upper secondary school population. Measures were taken in the early eighties to strengthen this sector of education, which led to the definition in 1985 of a national policy for developing technical and vocational education. Although the policy was aimed at upper secondary education, efforts are being made to ensure a viable transition from the lower secondary level as well. Indeed, early vocational education is necessary expecially in rural areas. Whatever form universal lower secondary education may take in these areas, without a vocational element it will not meet the needs of rural economic development and will be a source of dissatisfaction to the rural population. However, the decision as to when and how to insert a vocational element in rural schools is left to the local authorities. The principle of combining diversity and flexibility is as applicable to the development of vocational education, especially in rural areas, as it is to general education in primary and lower secondary schools. Policy is directed to encouraging enterprises, institutions, groups, individuals and the community to run vocational schools jointly or in partnership with various county or provincial education, agricultural, industrial or trade departments.

Action is in a wide variety of forms. Counties, towns and villages run vocational senior secondary schools; special rural secondary schools; cultural and technical schools for rural adults; primary vocational schools; and various short-term training classes or adult education centres. Courses taught by radio, television and correspondence schools are also available. Another approach that is proving worthwhile is the setting up of rural vocational middle schools and vocational classes in close proximity to general secondary schools which serve a wide geographical area. The villages and towns pay for operating costs according to the number of their students enrolled. Graduates take up trades in the county or villages and are well-received by the local communities. Particularly

APPENDIX I (Cont'd)

promising for the development of vocational education in rural areas is the co-operative effort being made with village enterprises by various educational and training authorities. In some areas where the economy is progressing, village enterprises are growing to the point where they can afford to contribute funds, manpower and materials to running vocational schools and programmes.

The problem of having enough qualified teachers is especially acute in technical and vocational education. Efforts are being made to develop teacher training programmes for all levels of technical and vocational education. A significant decision which has been taken in this connection is that engineers and technicians who accept appointment to teach in vocational schools have their jobs and titles reserved for them should they decide to return to their trade or industry.

Adult education in rural areas

Given China's huge rural population, successive governments have all given priority to adult education in the predominately rural areas. The major objective at present is to improve this population's educational standard up to secondary agricultural-technical level by continuing programmes to wipe out illiteracy, developing spare time primary school and lower secondary school, and launching technical education programmes.

The major problem in rural areas is very basic: illiteracy. As more children attend primary school, these efforts will have been in vain if at the same time no provision is made to help them continue learning, even if they do not attend school full time, and keep them from falling back into the ranks of the illiterate. Therefore, the development of spare time education is primordial, even if it is limited to primary education for the moment.

Again the sheer dimension of the problem (several billion farm workers), requires a realistic approach to encourage local initiative and funding, and to develop programmes according to local conditions. A number of levels, forms and instructional patterns have, therefore, been developed. First there are the continuing adult literacy programmes and second the further development of spare time primary education which offers the Chinese language and mathematics in addition to general agricultural subjects. Third, when conditions allow, spare time secondary education may be offered with vocational agricultural courses integrated. Fourth, there are two forms of technical education for the adult rural population. One is seasonal classes in agricultural techniques designed to improve the skills of farm workers. The second form is that of a once-a-year spare time programme with more formal and systematic courses. These programmes are geared to educated youth, grass-roots cadres with some formal education, and agricultural technicians. Lastly, there are county agricultural technical schools at secondary level recruiting young people and young adults with primary education and some productive experience who are committed to returning to their homes and jobs after completion of the programme. Again, flexibility is the key to the future.

III. EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Education in China is managed by educational administrations within the local government organization. Education in rural areas is administered at the county level in line with the policy that, while the state should define policy

APPENDIX I (Cont'd)

and set general objetives as well as standards, government units in close contact with the actual situation should be empowered to administer the system.

In fact, in the past, the powers and responsibilities of the various local administrations, particularly as between county and township, were not clearly defined. The county unit was too large and the township was not equipped to supervise activities in surrounding villages. Plans are under way to remedy this situation. They are designed to clarify the responsibilities of the county, township, village and community, and the relationship they should have with one another, giving full play to community forces and to the positive factors of collective organizations. They are further designed to give more independence to the townships and the schools themselves while the county educational units handle guidelines and policy-making, the establishment of rules and regulations, planning and teacher qualifications.

In addition to these general functions, the county is required to run directly the full-time secondary, vocational and teacher training schools as well as experimental primary schools and kindergartens in the towns. The townships are responsible for lower and vocational secondary schools and central primary schools. While the townships take the lead in operating primary schools in the surrounding villages, they ensure that villagers are very closely involved in the process.

The township has become the key unit for implementing a nine-year compulsory education. A township educational committee administers all the educational organization within the jurisdiction of the township under the guidance of the township government and the county education bureau. This unit has three major responsibilities. First, it draws up the township's plan for implementing a nine-year compulsory education. Second, it collects and distributes revenues from non-state sources and supervises expenditure. Third, it supervises schools and ensures that their work conforms to national guidelines.

Each township has a chief educational administrator with a full-time assistant. At the village level «boards of trustees», acting as educational back-up committees, work in co-operation with the township authorities. But they are responsible for teachers' salaries; they help them with their problems; they supervise expenditure and generally assist in strengthening relations between the schools and the community. This co-operative effort has resulted in greater efficiency in the educational system in terms of fund raising, improved school facilities and, above all, of increasing enrolment ratios of school-age children and progress towards universal education.

Nevertheless, a number of problems remain, particularly in rural areas. The lines of responsibility as between township and county with regard, for example, to appointments and removals of teachers are still not correlated. Given the huge variation in townships, the administrative capacities vary as widely, particularly with regard to availability of skilled educational administrators. The lack of such people in rural townships is a barrier to the development of education. Finally, more initiative needs to be transferred to the schools and their principals, who deal with the situation on a day-to-day basis.

APPENDIX I (Cont'd)

IV. EDUCATIONAL FINANCE

There are four major sources of educational funding in China: public funds allocated by governments at all levels; money raised by the townships and villages themselves; students' fees, and income from student work-study programmes. Joint investment by the state and local communities, however, is at the core of the financing of education in rural areas, the relative proportions of state and local funding depending on the prevailing local conditions. In the poorer areas and minority nationality regions, the state subsidizes both capital (school buildings and furniture) and recurrent costs.

The main item of expense in rural education is teacher remuneration. Part of this expense is borne by the state and part by the township or village in the form of cash or in kind at the end of the year, depending on the community's profits, although the system is gradually evolving into a salaried operation which assures teachers a minimum annual salary. The role of local communities in this matter is increasing. In 1982, 63.76% of primary teachers' salaries were paid by such communities.

The total national expenditure on education over the last ten years has been growing at a faster rate than that of the national income. Moreover, educational expense is a proportionately bigger item in the county budgets than in the national budget. This expenditure is, however, far from meeting the needs of the development of rural education. Hence, the following strategic financing decisions. First, the growth in educational funds allocated by the central and local governments must be higher than the growth in general revenue; and average expenditure on education should grow gradually according to enrolment. Second, township revenues should be mainly devoted to education. Third, supplementary levies may be collected in some areas to be devoted to education. Fourth, a major effort should be made to encourage voluntary donations by community units or individuals in cash or kind, including remittances by Chinese abroad to their home towns; and each gesture should be publicly acknowledged and recognized.

Despite these policies and efforts, a number of imbalances remain in rural education beginning with the rural townships' different levels of economic development. The guiding principle with regard to state subsidies is to give greater subsidies to the poorer areas. Moreover, the collection of supplementary education funds by the townships has to be in line with the local economy and productivity of local enterprises. These principles have to be successfully applied with flexibility. In areas where the population has begun only in recent years to eat properly and dress warmly, people cannot be expected to contribute to the funds for modern school facilities; expectations cannot go beyond a safe building, desks and chairs.

Finally, a major problem in funding rural education is the lack of legislation at the local level. Consequently, the amount of funds collected locally and their use are often left to the ad hoc subjective judgement of local leaders. There is the need for local experience to be systematized into rules and regulations, and kept under review, in the interest of securing a national basis for fund raising within an approved budget and reviewing income and expenditure at regular intervals.

APPENDIX I (Cont'd)

V. CONCLUSIONS

Rural education in China is undergoing reform. It is developing, but a number of problems remain to be solved before the principles can be turned into reality.

Educational legislation though advancing, particularly with the Compulsory Education Law, is not complete and does not provide for an entire educational system. Legislation should be formulated covering the teaching corps, collection of educational funds, duties of educational administrators, primary and secondary school operations, educational standards, vocational education, adult education. Furthermore, given the country's size and diversity there should be local legislation adapted to local conditions.

Implementation of compulsory education will not come about without a major effort. First, a vast and intensive exercise in communication based on thorough research into, and understanding of, local conditions is required to convince people of its value. Secondly, concrete measures of implementation must be formulated, first and foremost by local governments, in all the areas discussed in the present study.

Rural education does not yet form a complete system, and the development of all of its aspects requires a high degree of co-ordination among all the parties involved in order that what is done at one level might strengthen, rather than impede, accomplishment at another level. Development for development's sake will not, however, meet the major objective of a more qualified and cultivated rural population equipped to contribute to the economic development of the nation. Here reform directed to achieving greater quality must go hand in hand with development.

These goals will not be accomplished without theoretical and experimental research in the field of rural education. The authors of this study would welcome further Unesco initiatives to enable exchange of information and experience on innovation in rural education among all countries faced with these problems and to enhance co-operative research efforts. They would further welcome the opportunity to host such programmes in China.

APPENDIX II

Summary Version of Study of Measures in the Philippines

I. INTRODUCTION

A major social policy of the Philippines Government is universal elementary education. The Philippines has passed laws and issued decrees, executive orders, rules and regulations designed to facilitate access to all types and levels of education for all children, youths and adults. Despite all these efforts, the Philippines has not achieved universal education. According to the 1987-1992 Medium Term Plan, enrolment rate among elementary school age (7-12 years old) children was still about 96% in the school year 1981-1982.

II. DEMOCRATIZATION OF ACCESS TO EDUCATION: ITS LEGAL HISTORY

Beginnings: The Spanish and American Regimes

The Educational Decree of 1863

Most of the schools during the Spanish regime were mission schools established for the propagation of the Christian doctrine. They were operated by the Roman Catholic Church. In 1863, however, the King of Spain issued the Educational Decree of 1863 establishing a system of education at three levels, elementary, secondary and collegiate. Unfortunately, the decree was not implemented by the Spanish Government in the Philippines. Due to lack of funds, the majority of schools were nothing but structures consisting of walls and roofs, with no seats, equipment or materials. The few that were equipped were for the children of Spaniards who were either officials or were born in the Philippines, or belonged to the principalia. The Filipinos were never given a chance to enrol in these schools.

The Educational Acts of 1901, 1917, 1923

The present public school system for the masses started with seven schools under American military occupation of the islands. On 21 January 1901, the second Philippine Commission, in its capacity as a legislative body, enacted the Educational Act of 1901, creating the Department of Public Instruction and making available to the people of the Philippines a system of free public schools. In accordance with a number of statutes, public elementary, secondary and post-secondary schools were established and Government colleges and universities were founded - all of which were tax-supported institutions. Facilities, however, did not keep pace with demand. Hence, the establishment of schools under private auspices, solely financed from private sources. To meet the need for ensuring efficiency of instruction in the increasing number of private schools, the Educational Act 2706, enacted on 10 March 1917 and amended on 16 March 1923, made Government inspection of private schools obligatory.

The Commonwealth Period

The Constitution Mandate, 1935

The establishment of the Philippine Commonwealth in November 1935 was followed by a number of educational measures aimed at carrying out the Constitutional Mandate, which states that:

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

> All educational institutions shall be under the supervision of, and subject to, regulation by the State. The Government shall establish and maintain a complete and adequate system of public education and shall provide at least free public primary instruction, and citizenship training to adult citizens.

From this mandate flowed several Educational Acts, namely, the Commonwealth Acts Nos. 80, 466 and 586, the objectives and principal provisions of which are summarized below.

Commonwealth Acts Nos. 80, 466 and 586

The Commonwealth Act No. 80 was passed to guide action in the effort to eradicate illiteracy. It provided for the organization of the Office of Adult Education under the Director of Adult Education. This Office was charged to work for the eradication of illiteracy, to provide vocational guidance and to give citizenship training. The Commonwealth Act No. 466 brought into existence a National Internal Revenue Code whereby:

(a) three-sevenths of the proceeds of the internal revenue percentage taxes on agricultural products as well as the taxes due from proprietors or operators of rope factories, sugar centrals, rice mills, coconut oil mills accrued to the National Government;

(b) two and one-half per cent of the proceeds of the tax on estate inheritance, legacies, and other acquisitions mortis causa, as well as gifts, accrued:

(i) to the provinces
(ii) to the municipalities

and the remaining 95 per cent went to the National Government.

With effect from 1 July 1940 the school fund in all the municipalities and municipal districts was disestablished; and any amount remaining unexpended and unobligated, on the date of the approval of the Act, formed part of the municipal general funds. All money hitherto accruing to the municipal school fund by law and not specifically transferred to the National Government, after 30 June 1940, accrued to the municipal general fund. The Act was approved on 7 August 1940.

No tuition fees were to be collected by the municipalities and municipal districts in the intermediate classes of the schools under their jurisdiction.

The Commonwealth Act No. 586 came to be known as the Educational Act of 1940. This Act provided for the revision of the system of public elementary education in the Philippines, including its financing. Section 2 of the Act states: «In order to meet the increasing demand for public elementary instruction and at the same time comply with the constitutional mandate on public education, a complete revision of the public elementary school system is imperative. Such revision shall have the following objectives:

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

(a) to simplify, shorten, and render more practical and economical both the primary (Grades I-IV) and intermediate (Grades V-VII) courses of instruction so as to place the same within the reach of the largest possible number of school children;

(b) to afford every child of school age adequate facilities to commence and complete at least the primary grades;

(c) to give every child completing the primary grades an adequate working knowledge of reading and writing, the fundamentals of arithmetic, geography, Philippine history and government, and character and civic training; and

(d) to ensure that all children attending the elementary schools shall remain literate and become useful, upright and patriotic citizens.

To achieve the objectives set forth, the elementary curriculum was revised. The academic school-year and vacations were adjusted to coincide with the working seasons of the Philippines. The age for admission to the public elementary schools was not to be more than nine and the length of time required for the completion of the elementary instruction, comprising both the primary and intermediate grades, was reduced from seven in a 4-3 structure to six years.

Section 5 of the same Act stipulated that children admitted into the public elementary schools should remain in school until they completed at least the primary grades. Compulsory attendance, as herein required, could be waived in any one of the following cases:

(a) when the distance from the home of the child to the nearest school exceeds three kilometres and the said school is not conveniently accessible to the child, considering the means of transportation available;

(b) if a child is mentally defective or is physically unable to attend school;

(c) where, on account of the economic condition of his parents, the child cannot afford to continue in school; and

(d) when the child transfers to a private school.

Parents or guardians who failed to keep their children in school without justification were liable to a fine of from twenty to fifty pesos.

To accommodate all children qualified to attend the elementary school, the Secretary of Instruction gave authority to hold two or more complete single sessions a day and adopt other measures calculated to meet enrolment targets.

From the beginning of the school year 1940-1941, public elementary education (primary and intermediate grades) was supported by the National Government. However, the chartered cities continued to support all the intermediate classes within their jurisdiction. Those which were not financially able to support their intermediate classes were aided by the National Government.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

Matriculation fee in the amount of two pesos for each pupil enrolled in the intermediate grades was collected in municipalities and municipal districts. The proceeds went to the National Government and were spent principally on the purchase of library books and equipment and on supporting athletic activities in the intermediate grades.

After Philippine Independence

Republic Act 896 or Elementary Education Act of 1953

After the Philippines became independent, legislative measures designed to universalize education continued to be enacted. A significant Act passed, with the necessary appropriation of funds to meet the cost, was the Republic Act No. 896 known as the Elementary Education Act of 1953. Section 2 of this Act states: «In pursuance of the aim of all schools expressed in Section 5, Article XIV of the Constitution it shall be the main function of the elementary school to develop healthy citizens of good moral character, equipped with the knowledge, habits and ideals needed for a happy and useful home and community life.»

The Act authorized the Department of Education to revise the elementary school system on the following basis: the primary course to consist of four grades (Grade I to Grade IV) and the intermediate course of three grades (Grades V-VII). Under the Act, teachers were made available in accordance with the following formula: one teacher per class in the primary grades and three teachers for every two classes or five for a group of three classes in the intermediate grades.

Section 5 of the Act reiterated not only compulsory enrolment of children in a public school in the year following their seventh birthday but also compulsory attendance. Exceptions were permitted in two more cases than those stipulated under the Commonwealth Educational Act of 1940; where the child

(a) cannot be accommodated because of shortage of places; and

(b) is being regularly instructed by his parent or guardian or private tutor, under conditions that will be prescribed by the Secretary of Education.

The Act was approved on 28 June 1953. While it corrected the ill-effects of the Education Act of 1940 by restoring the double session per day and Grade VII, the Act of 1953 could not be implemented in places where accommodation continued to be a problem. Only in exclusive private schools was the restoration of Grade VII implemented. Compulsory education could not be fully enforced particularly in the rural areas where the exemptions mentioned in the Act widely applied.

Republic Act No. 2370

This Act, which is known as the Barrio Charter, granted autonomy to units of municipalities or municipal districts called barrios for the performance of particular Government functions. It came into effect on 1 January 1960. Section 6 of the Act stipulates that in each barrio there shall be organized a Council comprising a lieutenant, a treasurer, four council members and as many vice lieutenants as there are sitios[1] (or where there are no sitios, one vice barrio lieutenant for every two hundred inhabitans of the barrio).

1. A sitio is a recognizable neighbourhood within the larger community of a barrio.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

Among the powers, duties and responsibilities of the Barrio Council are:

(a) the power to:

(i) Construct and/or maintain school buildings and such public works within its boundaries as roads, bridges, viaducts, sidewalks, playgrounds and parks, water supply, drainage, irrigation, sewerage, and public toilet facilities, and, for this purpose, to exercise the power of eminent domain with the approval of the municipal Council;

(ii) Undertake co-operative enterprises that will improve the economic condition and well-being of the barrio residents;

(iii) Initiate and submit to the barrio assembly community programmes of economic and social benefit to the inhabitants of the barrio;

(iv) Submit to the Municipal Council such suggestions or recommendations as it may see fit for the improvement of the barrio and/or for the welfare of its inhabitants;

(v) Hold benefits in their respective barrios without having to secure permits from the Social Welfare Administration. (The proceeds from such benefits shall be tax-exempt and shall go to the barrio general fund, unless previously set aside for a specific purpose).

(b) the duty to organize:

At least twice a month such lectures, programmes and/or community assemblies as may serve to educate and enlighten the people on moral, civic, political, educational and other matters of public interest.

(c) the responsibility for appropriating funds to implement the decisions of the barrio assembly.

Republic Act 4090 or State Scholarship Law

To extend opportunities for tertiary education to poor but deserving students Republic Act No. 4090, known as State Scholarship Law, was passed and approved on 19 June 1964. Section 1 of this Act provides that there shall be selected annually from the graduating classes of all public and private high schools throughout the Philippines poor but deserving students to be known as «State Scholars» who shall be granted state scholarships in science, arts, and letters. The cost of their prescribed textbooks and equipment, board and lodging, clothing, travel and their miscellaneous expenses shall be defrayed from funds appropriated by Law or contributed from other sources for scholarship purposes.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

Candidates for state scholarships must:

(a) be among the first ten of their graduating classes and especially gifted in the particular fields they have chosen;

(b) have parents or guardians who have no resources to finance them for higher education;

(c) be of good health, excellent moral character and unquestionable integrity; and

(d) be citizens of the Philippines by birth and not more than 21 years of age at the time of their selection.

A State Scholarship Council was created and authorized to consolidate, integrate, systematize, administer and implement all programmes of Government scholarships which were entrusted to them.

This law helped many poor but deserving high school students to pursue tertiary education although the majority of those who availed themselves of the opportunity were from the capital and urban and provincial towns where universities and colleges were available.

Republic Act 5447

To contribute to the financial support of the goals of education as provided by the Constitution, the Republic Act 5447 was enacted and approved on 26 September 1968. The Act created a Special Education Fund and set up School Boards whose duties included the responsibility for the use of the Special Fund, inter alia, for the construction and repair of plant and provision of equipment; the payment and adjustment of salaries of public school teachers; the preparation, printing and/or purchase of textbooks, teaching materials; the implementation of the existing programme for citizenship development in barrio high schools, folk schools and adult education classes; education research, including that of the Board of National Education; Government scholarships to poor but deserving students under Republic Act No. 4090; and the promotion of physical education.

Republic Act 5447 of September 1968 contributed to the upgrading of the quality of education at the elementary level and, in some instances, even in the secondary schools. The fund helped in the improvement of physical plant and health facilities and in providing much needed equipment and instructional materials. It made possible the opening of extension classes in the middle of the fiscal year thus giving children who would otherwise be out of school access to education. (In the Philippines the school year starts in June while budgets are approved in January.) However, the Republic Act of 1968 made little or no difference to the rural areas.

It was left to Act No. 6054, its successor, passed by a resolution of the Sixth Congress of the Republic of the Philippines at its ninth special session on 4 August 1969 to face up to this and other pertinent issues. Excerpts, abridged where necessary, are given below:

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

WHEREAS, by Constitutional mandate, the Government is committed to the establishment and maintenance of a complete and adequate system of public education;

WHEREAS, the Philippine Government has established an educational system consisting of the elementary, secondary, and collegiate courses pursuant to the Constitution;

WHEREAS, of the three levels, the secondary is and always has been the bottleneck and the weakest link of the school system, considering that only one out of five of the youth of high school age is in school;

WHEREAS, of the three levels of instruction, the support of the high school has been entrusted to local government and/or to the people;

WHEREAS, the average attainment of our people is the fifth grade, which is less than the requirements of literacy;

WHEREAS, the fluctuating and the varying capacity of the local governments to finance the operations of the public high schools has resulted in the weakening of this important link between the local and upper rungs of the school system;

WHEREAS, the unstable source of funds for the public high school cannot cope with the increasing demands for high school education;

WHEREAS, the minimum requirements for employment in the lowest available job is graduation from high school;

WHEREAS, there are about five million Filipino youths of high school age who should be given every opportunity to continue their studies and thereby raise the average national educational level beyond Grade VI;

WHEREAS, the two major causes of school dropout as revealed by official surveys are finance and distance of students from schools;

WHEREAS, the establishment of a high school close to the homes of students will solve, at least partly, the problem of distance and consequently, the problem of economy;

WHEREAS, a few barrio (community) high schools have been established on an experimental basis and, in the light of their successful beginning, over a thousand others have followed suit in the different parts of the country; and

WHEREAS, there is a direct relation between the level of education of the people and the level of their socio-economic status.

Section 1. Declaration of Policy

It is hereby declared to be the policy of this Act to make possible equal opportunities for high school education for all the children of all the people of the Philippines regardless of the place of birth or of the economic condition of their parents thus enabling all the people to achieve high school education.

Section 3. Definition

The term «Barrio High School» shall apply to high schools established in the barrios of the Philippines (except those opened and maintained by the Bureau of Public Schools, the Bureau of Vocational Education or the private high schools under the Bureau of Private Schools and laboratory

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

or demonstration high schools of State Universities and Colleges which offer the standard secondary courses prescribed by the Department of Education, in cities and municipalities and are organized, maintained and supervised in accordance with the provisions of this Act.

Section 5. Initiative of the Council

It shall be the duty of the Barrio Council to initiate the organization of a barrio high school whenever at least forty students eligible for high school are available, whose parents have signed a petition in writing for the establishment of a barrio high school. The petition shall be submitted by the Council, together with its resolution of approval, to the Superintendent of Schools, who shall recommend the opening of the barrio high school if he considers it to be urgent and in the interest of the barrio concerned. Two or more barrios may establish a barrio high school and share the expenses for the establishment, operation and maintenance proportionately.

Section 6. Administration and Supervision

The Secretary of Education through the Director of Public Schools shall have the power to authorize the opening of barrio high schools and the closing of any which he may find operating in violation of any provisions of this Act or any rule or regulation promulgated by authority of this Act. He shall place the administration and supervision of each barrio high school under the principal or the nearest complete public high school provided, however, that the barrio councils assume responsibility for the administration of funds for the operation of barrio high schools in their jurisdiction in accordance with an approved budget and subject to the usual accounting and auditing regulations.

All funds for the establishment, operation and maintenance of the barrio high schools shall be deposited with the municipal treasurer by the barrio treasurer, who shall be bonded in an amount to be fixed by the Barrio Council. The manner of deposit and disbursement of funds in the case of a barrio high school shall be fixed and determined by the Auditor General or his representatives.

Section 8. Financing

The barrio high school shall be supported primarily from tuition fees, which shall not be higher than what is paid in the provincial high school and from:

(a) the amount which the Barrio Council may appropriate out of the ten per cent of real estate tax accruing to the Barrio General Fund under the Republic Act No. 3590;

(b) an additional five per cent of the real estate tax collected within the barrio appropriated by the Barrio Council exclusively for the improvement of instruction in the barrio high schools; and

(c) about five million pesos appropriated under the Republic Act No. 5440 which shall be established as a special trust fund to be administered by the Secretary of Education in support of, and exclusively as a national contribution to, barrio high schools.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

Section 9. Teachers and Staff

The Superintendent of Schools shall see to it that teachers appointed to barrio high schools have the same qualifications required of teachers in any provincial, city or municipal high school and that there is at least one full-time qualified teacher on the staff and qualified teachers of a barrio elementary school that houses a barrio high school are allowed, with his approval, to handle classes on a part-time basis.

Section 10. Remuneration

The salaries of full-time classroom teachers of the barrio high schools shall be the same as for teachers of the same rank and category in regular public high schools. Honoraria for part-time teachers shall be determined by rules and regulations, which the Secretary of Education shall promulgate; such teachers shall not be assigned additional duties in the barrio high schools.

Section 11. Curriculum

The barrio high school shall adopt an integrated curriculum or curricula consisting of academic and vocational subjects depending upon the needs and conditions of the community in which it is located: provided that the vocational course in each curriculum year shall be terminal.

Section 12. Miscellaneous Provision

No barrio high school, except those existing at the time of the approval of this Act, may open in the poblacion or within a radius of three kilometres from an existing high school. The Secretary of Education may, however, make an exception when public interest so requires.

Whenever necessary, the Superintendent of Schools shall authorize the use, by the barrio high school, of hand tools, materials, and supplies for practical arts and vocational courses available in the elementary school where the barrio high school holds classes.

Section 13. Use of Existing Facilities

The Bureau of Public Schools and the Bureau of Vocational Education are hereby authorized and directed to allow the use of existing facilities by the barrio high schools whenever the same are not in use by their respective schools.

Section 14. Review of Related Ordinances

All ordinancies approved by barrio councils relating to the establishment and operation of the barrio high school shall be subject to review by the appropriate city or municipal council to ensure that they are consistent with the law and municipal ordinances. If the city or municipal council does not take action on an ordinance within fifteen days, non-working days excepted, the ordinance shall be deemed as approved. Any disagreement on the action taken by the city or municipal council shall be referred to the provincial or city fiscal, as the case may be, for a final ruling.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

Section 15. Rules and Regulations

In order to implement the policy under this Act, the Secretary of Education is directed and authorized to promulgate all necessary rules and regulations covering such items as tuition and other fees (which must be reasonable and uniform); the sharing of school facilities and personnel; accreditation and student transfers. and closure of barrio high schools provided that no barrio high school shall be closed without due notice and without allowing a reasonable time within which the barrio Council concerned can fulfill all requirements of law and regulations.

Section 16. Repealing Clause

All laws or regulations in conflict or inconsistent with this Act are hereby repealed and/or amended accordingly.

The Educational Development Decree of 1972

To guarantee that the educational system would be relevant and responsive to the challenges and requirements of national, regional, provincial and local development, Education Development Decree of 1972 was promulgated, the relevant instrument having been signed by President F. Marcos on 29 November 1972 in an Attachment to Presidential Decree No. 6-A. Section 2 states that it is the policy of the Government to ensure, within the context of a free and democratic system, maximum contribution of the educational system to the attainment of national development goals, which are:

(a) To achieve and maintain an increasing rate of economic development and social progress.

(b) To ensure the maximum participation of all the people in the attainment and enjoyment of the benefits of such growth, and

(c) To strengthen national consciousness and promote desirable cultural values in a changing world.

To this end the educational system aims to:

(a) Provide for a broad general education that will assist each individual, in the peculiar ecology of his own society, to:

  (i) attain his potential as a human being;

  (ii) enhance the range and quality of individual and group participation in the basic functions of society; and

  (iii) acquire the essential educational foundation for his development into a productive, versatile citizen;

(b) Train the nation's manpower in the middle-level skills required for national development;

(c) Develop the high-level professions that will provide leadership for the nation, advance knowledge through research, and apply new knowledge for improving the quality of human life; and

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

(d) Respond effectively to changing needs and conditions of the nation through a system of educational planning and evaluation.

In order to lay the foundation and to advance the attainment of these objectives a ten-year national educational development programme was formulated based on the following:

(a) Improvement of curricular programmes and quality of instruction at all levels by way of upgrading physical facilities, adaptation of cost-saving instructional technology and training and retraining of teachers and administrators.

(b) Upgrading of academic standards through accreditation schemes, admission testing, and guidance and counselling.

(c) Democratization of access to educational opportunities through the provision of financial assistance to deserving students, skills-training programmes for out-of-school youths and continuing education programmes for non-literate adults.

(d) Restructuring of higher education to become more responsive to national development needs through a planned system of incentives and assistance to both public and private colleges and universities and synchronization of curricular programmes, staffing patterns and institutional activities.

(e) Expansion of existing programmes and establishment of new ones designed to train middle-level technical and agricultural manpower, and

(f) Reform of the educational financing system to facilitate the shift of responsibility for elementary and secondary education from the national to the local government, thereby increasing government participation in higher education.

With the objectives stated above in mind, a number of educational development projects were undertaken among which were:

(a) The establishment and improvement of:

(i) secondary schools which included provision of facilities and equipment for the use of expanded and improved curriculum;

(ii) technical institutes, skills training centres and other non-formal training programmes and projects, for out-of-school youths and the unemployed, in collaboration with the programmes of the National Manpower and Youth Council.

(b) The expansion of agricultural secondary and higher education programmes and extension activities supported by radio-broadcasting and rural training services, and the provision of facilities including seed capital revolving funds.

(c) The provision of assistance and incentives, including loans and grants for the planned development and improvement of programmes and facilities in both public and private universities, colleges and schools.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

For the attainment of the objectives of the Decree mentioned above, an Educational Special Committee was created to administer the Educational Institutions Development Fund which was built up from: (i) an appropriation of the sum of ₱500,000,000 from the National Treasury and released in the following manner: ₱50,000,000 for 1972-73 and ₱50,000,000 annually thereafter; (ii) a loan, contracted under Section 7 of the Decree, of $100,000,000 from the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development to finance the Seventh Educational Project that implemented two programmes - PRODED and PROCEED - addressed to the 4-H (Head, Heart, Hand and Health) development of Filipino children.

PRODED was a four-year (1982-1985) development programme which aimed to:

(a) reduce disparities in educational resources and pupil performance at the regional level;

(b) improve the overall quality and efficiency of elementary education; and

(c) enhance the management capability of the elementary education system, especially at the regional and sub-regional levels.

PROCEED, on the other hand, was a long-term scheme designed to embrace aspects of elementary education development which PRODED would not have provided for. It has projects for curriculum, instructional materials, physical facilities, teacher development and welfare, school health and nutrition and management.

The Educational Act of 1982

The Education Act of 1982 established an integrated system of education in which private and public sectors of education were built into one system. It was signed into law on 11 September 1982. It repealed or modified «all laws or parts thereof inconsistent with it», among them: the Educational Act of 1901 which created the Department of Public Instruction; the Commonwealth Act 586, the Educational Act of 1940, which reduced the elementary course to six years and adopted the double-single session plan; and the Republic Act 896, the Elementary Education Act of 1953, which restored the single-session plan.

Section 3 of the 1982 Act, Declaration of Basic Policy states: the policy of the State to establish and maintain a complete, adequate and integrated system of education relevant to the goals of national development. It underlines the responsibility of the State to promote:

(a) the right of every individual[1] to relevant[2] quality education, regardless of sex, age, creed, socio-economic status, physical and mental conditions, racial or ethnic origin, political or other affiliation;

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1. The term «individual» is used instead of citizen to show that every human being who is welcomed to the Philippines is entitled to the benefits of the services of the State in the field of education within its capabilities.

2. The academic or faculty council usually determines what is relevant.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

(b) equality of access to education as well as the enjoyment of the benefits of education by all its citizens; and

(c) the right of the nation's cultural communities to develop themselves within the context of their cultures, customs, traditions, interests and beliefs, recognizing education as an instrument for bringing about maximum participation in national development and ensuring the involvement of all in achieving national unity.

This is significant as it gives meaning and substance to the constitutional provision that the «natural right and duty of parents in the rearing of youths for civic efficiency and moral development should receive the aid and support of the government».

The 1986 Constitution of the Republic of the Philippines

The Constitution guarantees universal and free primary and secondary education for all children and youth of school age specifying, among others, that the State shall:

protect and promote the right of all citizens to quality education at all levels and shall take appropriate steps to make such education accessible to all.

III. EMPHASIS ON AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

Provision of Opportunities for Agricultural Education

In recognition of the needs of a predominantly agricultural country like the Philippines, the educational system provides opportunities for agricultural education starting from the primary grades and continuing to the university. Even the earliest Education Decree, that of 1863, provided for some form of instruction in practical agriculture, which was continued during the American regime up to the present beginning with food production in the primary grades. In Grades V and VI the boys take up gardening, animal raising and fruit growing as regular subjects while the girls study home economics.

Act No. 372

As early as 6 March 1902, the Philippine Commission passed Act No. 372 amending Act No. 83 entitled «A General Act for the Organization of Provincial Government in the Philippine Islands» sections of which authorized the provincial board:

(a) to provide buildings in the province to be used for the free secondary instruction of pupils resident in the province such instruction being understood to include, in addition to academic and commercial subjects, practical instruction in agriculture as well as teacher training; and

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

(b) to make provision for the payment of all expenses connected therewith, such schools and the way they are run being subject to the general supervision of the division superintendents and the General Superintendent of Public Instruction.

By virtue of the foregoing provision, provincial high schools, trade schools, and agricultural and farm schools were organized throughout the country. As aid to these schools depended upon the pleasure of the provincial board, the city council, or the municipal council concerned, the high schools suffered from unsatisfactory or inadequate financing.

Laws for the Establishment of Agricultural Schools

Executive Order No. 10

The Central Luzon Agricultural School, which is now Central Luzon State University, was established in July 1909 pursuant to Executive Order No. 10, which reserved a tract of land of 657 hectares in Muñoz, Nueva Ecija, for the purpose. It started with intermediate classes and in 1914 offered the first year of a secondary vocational curriculum. It became a national school with support from the national Government in 1916 and the Central Luzon State University in 1964.

Act No. 1870

To provide for the demand for higher education, the University of the Philippines was established by Act 1870, which was passed on 18 June 1908. Its School of Fine Arts was authorized by the Legislature at the same time. The College of Medicine was, chronologically, the first unit of the institutional organization to be set up. The Schools of Pharmacy and Dentistry were added later. The College of Agriculture was established at Los Baños, Laguna in 1909, and the College of Veterinary Science, opened in Manila the following year, was moved in 1920 to Los Baños to be close to the College of Agriculture as well as the School of Forestry which had been established in the same place in 1916.

The College of Agriculture, beginning its classes in June 1909, was the first college to be organized as part of the University, its pioneer staff and students having «literally to carve their institution out of the wilderness». By 1925, the College had an enrolment of 550 in two courses, leading to a bachelor degree, one of four years for 22 per cent of the student body who came from the high schools and the second of six years for 78 per cent who had only completed the intermediate stage of general education.

One problem experienced in the College of Agriculture was that practically all of its graduates, instead of returning to the farm, go into the service of the Bureau of Agriculture of the Government or become teachers of elementary science in the high schools. The main reason is that the student body of the college is economically poor. A greater proportion of them work their way through college compared to students in other courses in the University. Going back to the farm means returning to antiquated methods where suggestions for improvement would be viewed with little favour. Without the necessary capital they are unable to put such suggestions into practice on their own initiative. At one time there was hope that assistance in this respect would come from the rural credit system which had been established in the Islands but this hope has remained unfulfilled as a result of maladministration.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

Recommendations of the Quezon Survey Committee

The Committee on Agricultural Education of the Quezon Education Survey Committee in 1935 recommended several measures to improve Philippine agriculture, among them:

(a) the organisation of the People's Agricultural School to give short unit courses;

(b) the establishment of special agricultural institutes to offer practical courses to farmers who had only elementary education;

(c) more financial support for the extension of agricultural education;

(d) the development of the Central Luzon Agricultural School as a pattern for all agricultural high schools;

(e) practical experience on farms outside the College of Agriculture as a requirement before graduation.

The Committee also recommended that:

(a) the curriculum be enriched and farm life be made attractive and opportunity be created for students to read and learn about land ownership and successful agricultural enterprises in an effort to create greater interest in farm life;

(b) a comprehensive programme of agricultural education be drawn up comprising several types of agricultural schools to correspond to the dominant agricultural features of the country, such as a school for:

  (i) rice and corn culture (the Central Luzon Agricultural School);

  (ii) tobacco culture (the Cagayan Valley);

  (iii) coconut culture (Quezon Province);

  (iv) the abaca industry (Leyte);

  (v) the sugar industry (Negros);

  (vi) the livestock industry (Mindoro);

  (vii) horticulture (Batangas);

(c) legislation providing for the granting of loans to agricultural school graduates who might want to engage in farming; and

(d) provision in land for the establishment of vocational schools and agricultural colleges.

Other Measures

A number of legislative measures that were enacted to guide and support action in these and other directions which could, directly or indirectly, constitute to the improvement of the quality of life in the rural areas are briefly presented below.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

Commonwealth Act No. 313

This Act authorized the establishment of vocational trade and agricultural institutions like, or the upgrading of existing ones to the level of, the Philippine School of Arts and Trades and the Central Luzon Agricultural High School. Coming into effect on 8 June 1938, it marked a significant stage in the history of Philippine vocational education. It increased opportunities for Filipinos to pursue post-secondary vocational education and for the preparation of better qualified teachers.

Republic Act No. 414 and Commonwealth Act No. 414

The Republic Act No. 414 paved the way for the revival and promotion of home industries in Philippine education, particularly in vocational schools. The Act which came into effect in June 1949, appropriated the sum of ₱150,000 for the promotion of home industries and the revival as well as operation and maintenance of the Craftsman Section of the Vocational Education Division in the Bureau of Public Schools.

Educational Development Decree of 1972

This Presidential Decree provides, under Section 5, that the following educational development projects be initiated to help attain the national development goals:

(a) Establishment, and/or improvement of, technical institutes, skills training centres and other non-formal training programmes and projects for out-of-school youths and the unemployed in collaboration with the programmes of the National Manpower and Youth Council.

(b) Expansion of agricultural secondary and higher education programmes and extension activities which may include radio broadcasting and rural training services and the provision of facilities including seed capital revolving funds.

(c) Assistance and incentives including loans and grants for the planned development and improvement of programmes and facilities in both public and private universities, colleges and schools.

To meet the cost, Section 7 of the Decree authorized the President of the Philippines to contract for loans and credits with any foreign source under such terms and conditions as may be agreed. It also authorized the appropriation of the sum of ₱500,000,000 from the National Treasury to be released in the following manner: ₱50,000,000 for 1972-1973 and ₱50,000,000 annually thereafter.

Department Order No. 20, s. 1973

By this Order the Secretary of Education and Culture approved a «Revised Secondary Education Programme for Agricultural Schools» to be implemented in all agricultural schools beginning with the first year in the session 1972-1973 and extending the course progressively until the four-year programme would be fully in place in 1975-1976. Circular No. 7, s. 1973 set out the following guidelines for carrying out the Order.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

(a) Practical Arts/Vocational Courses in the Revised Secondary Education Programme will be offered as Vocational Agriculture I-IV made up as follows:

Vocational Agriculture I - Principles of Crops and Animal Production

Vocational Agriculture II - Horticulture and Agronomical Crops

Vocational Agriculture III - Poultry, Swine and Livestock Production

Vocational Agriculture IV - Advance Crop and Animal Production

Farm mechanics will be integrated in any agricultural enterprise undertaken.

(b) Farming programmes and Homemaking programmes will be taken from the first to the fourth year as a Vocational Elective. The first year Farming Programme for boys will be exploratory in nature and this will be utilized to orient the students in various aspects of farming enterprises and to give them an overview of the agricultural projects which they may possibly undertake in the third and fourth years.

(c) The General Education subjects offered in the Revised Secondary Education Curriculum should, in content and teaching, be slanted to vocational agriculture.

(d) The following subjects - Plant and Animal Protection and Agricultural Economics and Farm Management II and III - could be offered as electives.

(e) Youth Development Training (YDT) and Citizen's Army Training (CAT), including scouting, physical education, health and music, may be given on Saturday mornings.

(f) To gain admission, a student must:

(i) be a graduate of a recognized elementary school;

(ii) pass vocational interest, aptitude and mental ability tests;

(iii) be certified by a Government physicien as physically fit;

(iv) present a written attestation from a parent and a promissory note from himself that:

- he is interested and desires to become a farmer after graduation;

- has a farm lot or space which his parents or any other guarantor will permit to be used as his supervised farming project.

(g) The vocational guidance of the school should be organized to facilitate the admission requirements detailed above.

Education Act of 1982

Among the significant provisions of this Act relevant to Agricultural Education are the objectives it sets for:

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

(a) Secondary Education:

(i) to discover and enhance the different aptitudes and interests of the student so as to equip him with skills for productive endeavour and/or prepare him for tertiary schooling;

(ii) to aim broadly at achieving maximum development of the adolescent to make him effective and efficient in the roles that he will play in the different social groups to which he belongs, whether in further studies or in the world of work.

(b) Tertiary Education:

(i) to train the nation's manpower in the skills required for national development;

(ii) to develop the professions that will provide leadership for the nation; and

(iii) to advance knowledge through research and apply new knowledge to improve the quality of human life and to respond effectively to changing societal needs and conditions.

The Act also recognized the responsibility to provide, within the context of the formal education system, services to meet special needs of certain clientele. Accordingly, Section 24 of the Act sets out objectives to guide action for the benefit of the educationally deprived communities in order to help them participate meaningfully in community and national life and to unify all Filipinos into a free and just nation as follows:

(a) To eradicate illiteracy and raise the level of functional literacy of the population.

(b) To provide unemployed and underemployed youth and adults with appropriate vocational/technical skills to enable them to become more productive and effective citizens.

(c) To develop among the clientele of non-formal education proper values and attitudes necessary for personal, community and national development.

The 1986 Constitution of the Republic of the Philippines

The general provisions of the 1986 Constitution, already referred to, are as relevant to agricultural education as to general education. They are not repeated here but need to be borne in mind as one deals with the more specifically related topics below.

Extension services of agricultural schools: The effectiveness of any educational programme is measured in terms of the usefulness of that programme to the people which it serves. Our agricultural schools educate and train Filipino students. In addition to this, they are expected to give guidance and leadership in the improvement of the living conditions of the people in the areas in which such schools are located. This they do through agricultural extension services

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

which take many forms, including guidance and help with levelling and grading of production lands, correct analysis of soils, eradication and control of pests and diseases, construction of irrigation canals, providing farmers with planing materials, better breeding, establishment of fishponds, administration on the use of fertilizers.

Success of extension services will depend to a large extent on the solution of problems of organization, programming and financing of the services. A careful study of these problems is now being made by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports with the help of other government and civic agencies with a view to extending the benefits of the agricultural schools to the remotest parts of the country.

IV. SUMMARY OF EDUCATIONAL, LEGISLATIVE, ADMINISTRATIVE AND FINANCIAL MEASURES WHICH HAVE DIRECTLY OR INDIRECTLY FACILITATED ACCESS TO ALL TYPES AND LEVELS OF EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS

The educational history of the Philippines, as depicted in the legislative, administrative and financial measures and presented in this paper is replete with evidence of the Filipino's appetite for education. No matter their station in life, parents consider it both an obligation and a right to send their children to school. Colonizers of the Philippines noted such interest and took the initiative of introducing legislative, administrative and financial measures to provide education for the people. «There is no man, much less a women,» observed the Spaniard Father Chirino, «who did not know how to read or write».

On the basis of the Educational Decree of 1863, Spaniards provided schools in every municipality, offering courses in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, Christian doctrine, Spanish, choral music, agriculture for boys and needlework for girls. Attendance was to be compulsory for all children between the ages of 7 and 12. But for one reason or another, not all children could have access to the schools. Parents and community leaders, therefore, organized «caton» or «carilla» classes where simple literacy was taught. These classes continued into the early years of the American regime. However, as soon as public schools became available to children all over the country, accompanied by the establishment of organized private schools, the carilla classes phased out and education was left entirely to the schools.

Below is a list of measures, beginning with the Educational Decree of 1863, which have promoted the democratization of education in the Philippines, notable among which are the enabling Educational Acts which followed constitutional changes and the mandate to provide for, and expand, education each constitution issued.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

Table 1: Historical Matrix of Legislation that has promoted the Democratization of Access to Education in the Philippines

I.	INITIAL ATTEMPT DURING THE SPANISH REGIME A. The Educational Decree of 1863
II.	LAWS PASSED DURING THE AMERICAN REGIME A. The Educational Act of 1901 B. The Educational Act No. 2706 of 1917 C. Education Act No. 3075 of 1923 amending Act 2706
III.	LAWS PASSED DURING AND AFTER THE COMMONWEALTH PERIOD A. The constitutional Mandate, 1935 B. Commonwealth Act No. 80 of 1937 C. Commonwealth Act No. 466 of 1940 D. Education Act of 1940
IV.	LAWS PASSED AFTER PHILIPPINE INDEPENDENCE A. Republic Act 896 or Elementary Education Act of 1953 B. Republic Act No. 2370 of 1960 C. Republic Act 4090 or State Scholarship Law of 1964 D. Republic Act 5447 of 1968 Financing Edicts E. Republic Act No. 6054 of 1969 or the Barrio High School Charter
V.	LAWS PASSED DURING THE NEW REPUBLIC A. The Educational Development Decree of 1972 B. The Educational Act of 1982
VI.	LAWS PASSED DURING THE FREEDOM CONSTITUTION A. The 1986 Constitution of the Philippines

In February 1986, a peaceful revolution brought about a revolutionary government. This necessitated the use of an interim Freedom Constitution prior to the establishment of a new Constitution. The proposed new Constitution enshrined in its provisions, under Article XIV, Section 1-12, concrete proposals for the democratization of access to education.

The proposals and previous measures have a number of common elements and salient characteristics. Among them may be mentioned the following:

(a) Efforts towards educational development aimed at making as many people as possible literate, law-abiding and productive citizens.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

(b) For the democratization process to succeed, all endeavours must have:

(i) a legal basis;

(ii) financial support; and

(iii) an administrative machinery to plan, monitor and supervise implementation;

(iv) there is a close relationship between the measures on the one hand and the political will and orientation of the time on the other.

While efforts have been successful to a certain extent, a 100% access has not been attained due to certain constraints. But at least, the national participation rate of children from 7 to 12 reached a level of 96.6% in 1986.

With regard to the legislative measures designed to stress and improve agricultural education, it is noteworthy that although the Decree of 1863, which provided for a system of primary instruction, included «practical agriculture» in the curriculum, little was accomplished for lack of funds and facilities. However, the need continued to be stressed right up to the establishment of the Central Luzon Agricultural School in Muñoz, a distinct Philippine creation, on which other agricultural schools came to be modelled.

It is ironical, however, that despite the provision for intensified agricultural education, neither production in the country nor the quality of rural life has markedly improved although, as indicated in the text, successful efforts have been made here and there. An analysis of the situation will show that the establishment of farm or agricultural schools is not enough. The national/provincial/city government must be required by law to set aside a portion of its resources for the support of these schools. Tuition fees paid by the students for the maintenance of these schools have been high enough. To raise them further would discourage students from enrolling in these schools.

The College of Agriculture, organized as part of the University of the Philippines for the improvement and intensification of agriculture, has become one of the important features of the University system. It needs, however, to find ways and means of encouraging its graduates to go into agriculture.

What the Philippines need today are vocationally trained men and women who will play a major role in the economic development of the country; men and women who do not only have the technical know-how but who will lead in their neighbourhood in improving the peoples' social and economic lives. This will need intensive and specialized education and training in vocational skills which in turn are based upon an efficient programme of general education. General education is vital and is ensured through universalization of education.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following conclusions and recommendations flow from the study.

APPENDIX II (Cont'd)

1. If interest in education continues and present trends in the legislative and financial measures and action following them persist, full democratization of access to educational opportunity will be reached before the year 2000.

2. The legislative measures designed to improve agricultural education did not seem to have produced the results expected because of inadequate funding.

3. To ameliorate the lot of the poor, the extension of assistance in the form of resources and appropriate technology from government agencies and other external organizations into the farming village are necessary.

4. A comparative study of educational legislation designed to assist in improving the quality of life in rural areas of selected countries and their impact may be undertaken under the sponsorship of Unesco.

5. A systematic study of national legislative measures developed and implemented in the Philippines through the years should be undertaken by an interdisciplinary team that would, as well as probing into legal history, assess the effectiveness of measures from the point of view of the sociologist, the economist, the educational planner and the pedagogue.

6. Within the wider interdisciplinary study recommended above, there should be conducted other studies of more limited scope by selected Agricultural Schools and the College of Agriculture with a view to deepening their own understanding of the national problem and improving their performance as well as feeding information into the nation-wide interdisciplinary study suggested.

APPENDIX III

Summary Version of Study of Measures in Tanzania

I. INTRODUCTION

Tanzania shares with the rest of the African countries the dominance of the agricultural sector. At least 60 per cent of the population is dependent upon the land for their income. Therefore, socio-economic factors can act as one of the barriers to the provision of education to many children, young people and adults in rural areas, both men and women.

Since independence Tanzania has made efforts to change the educational system, to give it a national character and to foster socialism and self-reliance goals at all levels of education in the formal and non-formal systems.

II. MEASURES TO FACILITATE EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS (1961-1968)

Education after Independence

When Tanzania achieved independence in 1961, she inherited a colonial system of education which, according to Julius Nyerere, was designed to inculcate the values of the colonial society and to train individuals for the colonial state. The early efforts in education by independent Tanzania were corrective measures: they sought to remove from the inherited system its racially-based characteristics to reach more people, and to ensure that the education offered had a Tanzanian content. The administrative, legislative and financial measures that are mentioned below were intended to enable Tanzania achieve these objectives.

Act on Non-Racial Education

First was the Educational Act on Non-Racial Education (1961), which aimed at bringing about a change to a national educational system in which all educational institutions were accessible to all without regard to race, creed, sex, or physiological condition. It became unlawful to refuse admission to a child (African, Asian, European) into any school on racial grounds. As a result of this act, private Day Secondary Schools, mostly in urban areas, built and attended by Asians soon accepted African children. The latter, however, were mostly children of parents who could afford the school fees payable in such schools.

The Five-Year Plan for African Education 1957-1961

In the Five-Year Plan for African Education, 200 middle schools for boys and 38 for girls were to be built. For areas with scattered communities, the Plan stipulated the building of boarding schools. The expansion, however, did not meet the increasing demand for secondary education and local governments were encouraged to build schools through self-help arrangements. They were required to collaborate with the village leadership to mobilize the people to construct classrooms and teachers' houses while the Government provided construction materials and the school teachers. The few community centres built in the past became increasingly important information centres.

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

Despite such efforts, formal education for children was not adequate for the rural areas. The self-help method to build schools could not produce enough schools everywhere because there was already regional inequalities in terms of educational infrastructures. Regions such as Kilimanjaro, West Lake, Mbeya and Iringa, which had cash crops, tended to be more advanced than the others. In some places there were ineffective leadership and wide differences in the areas to be catered for and their physical and economic conditions. In some cases leaders could not persuade the people to build the schools; in others the population was so sparsely spread that it was difficult to locate a central place for the schools. All these further undermined efforts to provide education in rural areas.

It was equally difficult to provide non-formal education for adults which depended upon about 958 community centres scattered unevenly over 362,819 square miles to cater for a population of 15 million people. Hence the higher illiteracy rates in the rural areas compared to the urban areas.

Abolition of School Fees for Secondary School Education

The expansion of education under the Five-Year Plan for African Education did not satisfy the need for secondary or tertiary places. Only a small number of primary children were selected for secondary education; and of those selected a still smaller number came from the rural areas through the primary competitive examinations. Some studies give as a reason for this trend the fact that there were more parents in urban areas who had themselves benefitted from formal education than there were in rural areas. Malekela 1983 and Cooksey 1985 believe that educationally enlightened parents are likely to facilitate their children's entry into secondary schools through private tuition and provision of reading materials at home. Mmari (1984) contends that «literate parents appreciate the significance of formal education more than illiterate ones». Besides, urban areas had more day schools accessible to children.

School fees was a major problem during that period. For those children who were selected to enter public secondary schools, the T.Shs.(Tanzania shillings) 960 fees they had to pay was a big burden to some parents in rural areas who had no means of raising such funds. To help such parents, the Government at first allowed partial or full exemption. Subsequently, it abolished school fees in all secondary schools in 1964. By this time, according to Msekwa/ Maliamkono (1978), secondary school enrolment had increased from 19,897 to 29,958.

Besides encouraging local authorities to adopt self-help measures to increase primary education chances, plans were made to phase out standard VIII and to establish an unbroken educational system through th e primary school education. Mbunda (1979) observed that from 1961 to 1967, the number of children attending public primary schools rose from 486,470 to 753,114; schools increased by 627, and the teaching force grew from 9,190 to 16,271. Msekwa/Maliamkono (1979) noted that the abolition of primary school fees in 1971 resulted in increase in growth of primary schools; rural areas, which were educationally backward, experienced the most rapid expansion in primary schools, for instance in Rukwa, Masai, Rufiji and Masasi. There was, however, no corresponding expansion in secondary school education, and it became necessary to introduce the quota system to apportion places for secondary education to the regions.

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

Selection by Quota System

As all secondary schools became public, regardless whether they were in rural or urban areas, admission into them was by a national competitive examination, which inevitably favoured urban areas where there were more and better-developed educational facilities including public day schools without hostel accommodation for which pupils from rural areas could not compete to enter. Selection by the quota system with the assistance of competitive examinations tended to perpetuate inequalities.

The quota system of selecting entrants to secondary schools allocated specific number of places into secondary schools to each region. It was hoped that by this means equality of opportunity would be ensured and rural people would not be at a disadvantage on account of the poorly equipped educational environment. Cooksey (1985) noted that the system, however, had both advantages and disadvantages: it «effectively limited the size of the official secondary sector and spread available Form I places over the regions»; however «the official objectives of making educational opportunities available to children from educationally backward regions (rural areas) which they would not enjoy on the basis of a competitive ... examination has been successful at least at Form I level».

Malekela (1983) made a study of several measures intended to give equal educational chances to youths throughout Tanzania. The study showed that even the quota system of selection to secondary schools is far from providing equal opportunity to rural people. According to him, the system had not led to equality in Forms IV and V in terms of social background, race, religion, ethnicity and regions of origin. He concluded that «the extreme shortage of Form I places relative to demand has tended to encourage parents, teachers, head masters and local educational officials ... to indulge in a wide variety of corrupt practices, guaranteed to ruin the educational chances of quite a large number of deserving farmers' children who cannot afford private schooling».

The First Five-Year Development Plan 1964-1969

The First Five-Year Development Plan helped to integrate formal and non-formal education: President Julius Nyerere had pointed out that the basic needs for development in Tanzania are land, manpower, correct policies and good leadership. Tanzania has abundant land to start with; and, stressing the need to develop the rural areas by engaging people in various activities, the Plan included in the activities to be carried out simple training in agricultural techniques and craftmanship, health education, house craft, simple economics and literacy. It emphasized the need to help adults (a)to use modern skills in effecting change which would lead to their own development and that of the nation, (b) to raise their level of self-development, and (c) to engage in non-formal education as a lifelong process which should both complement and enhance the formal system.

As the merging of education personnel in the educational structure proceeded at the national, regional, district and ward levels, primary schools came to be used as adult education or community centres and educational committees had the services of formal and non-formal education personnel. This integration made it possible for many people in the rural areas to have access to educational opportunities, especially in the areas of literacy skills, science and technology, without waiting for new community centres to be constructed.

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

Education for Self-Reliance

The Arusha Declaration on Socialism and Self-reliance was formulated in 1967. The policy it enunciated has been the basis of educational thought and action and of recent administrative, legislative and financial measures in education. Education for Self-reliance, the policy statement that followed the Declaration, addressed itself to important educational issues such as the philosophy of education which should guide educational action, the pedagogical approaches to be followed and the strategies to be adopted for solving current educational problems. Moreover, it was a critique of colonial education, which Nyerere described as «a system of education which was in many respects inadequate and inappropriate for the new state».

Education for Self-reliance (ESR) includes the following among its objectives:

(a) To inculcate socialist and self-reliance values in its recipients.

(b) To remove elitist white-collar job attitudes.

(c) To extend educational opportunities to more people in response to social demand corresponding to national development needs, and

(d) To prepare youths and adults for village community-based agriculture.

Since the policy was announced its interpretation and implementation have been the subject of much discussion, particularly as to how to balance theory and practice. In the process, several questions have been raised: for example, should curricula activities be designed basically to fit the pupil/student into the village life? How should accruing economic gains be divided among the participants in certain educational activities for self-reliance? Some people have gone so far as evaluating abilities, in general, in terms of performance in ESR activities.

Act to ban Religion-Based School System

In 1968 an education act was passed which enabled the Government to manage and administer all schools including those run by religious organizations. This meant that all levels of education would use the approved national syllabus and teachers. By such act all schools would be open to children of all religions.

III. MEASURES TO FACILITATE EDUCATION (1969-1986)

Adult Education Year 1970

On 31 December 1969 President Julius Nyerere formally declared 1970 as Adult Education Year. A series of activities followed to facilitate the provision of adult education in Tanzania. The major emphasis, however, was on literacy skills. The Mwanza Literacy Pilot Project, which had been started in 1968, became the springboard for a national campaign with the following objectives according to President Nyerere:

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

(a) To shake ourselves out of resignation to the kind of life Tanzanian people have lived for centuries.

(b) To learn to improve our lives and our understanding of the national policy of Socialism and Self-reliance.

(c) To mobilize knowledge and skills in agricultural activities, rural construction, health and home economics.

(d) To raise productivity and the standard of living, and

(e) To provide follow-up education as well as continuing education for primary and secondary school-leavers.

In the same year, President Julius Nyerere announced to the nation that, by December 1971, illiteracy should have been eradicated in the districts of Mafia, Ukerewe, Masasi, Kilimanjaro and Dar es Salaam. It was foreseen that the pilot schemes would be extended to the rest of the country so that illiteracy, which at that time was more than 60 per cent, would be eradicated by 1975.

The curricula prepared by the Ministry of Education for the adult education and literacy programmes had a national character. It included knowledge of modern agriculture which would be in tune with the activities of people in Tanzania. Literacy primers prepared for use were on crop agriculture, animal husbandry, domestic science, and civics. The crops dealt with were the main cash and food crops of Tanzania such as maize and cotton. Teaching and learning covered functional literacy skills in reading, writing and numbers as well as specific skills, knowledge, attitudes, and norms that have direct bearing on the social activities of the people.

Virtually all people were required to participate, many as volunteers, in helping adults to learn. Most of the volunteer teachers were ex-seventh grade young people and university students. It was the seventh grade leavers, however, who became a permanent phenomenon of the volunteer teachers in most literacy classes.

The Kwamsisi Ujamaa Village in Tanga was among the places selected for a Primary Education Reform Project in Tanzania conducted under a Tanzania/Unicef/Unesco co-operation scheme. This pilot project at Kwamsisi was started in 1971 as one of the steps taken to foster community education based on the principles of Education for Self-reliance. It was to try as much as possible to prepare youth for rural life in a way that would enable them to see the relevance of scientific knowledge already acquired to life in the rural community. By 1975 several primary schools in Tanzania had adopted the community education approach that was being applied in carrying out the project.

Alongside such community-supported programmes within the formal system was the use that was made of the mass campaign in the non-formal system. The mass campaign aimed at helping increasing numbers of people to learn development ideas in the quickest possible way. It suited situations where there was a common problem for the solution of which the people concerned could participate in finding and working out the solution. It employed such techniques as study groups, public meetings, mass media facilities including the radio, newspapers and the cinema to disseminate information to participants.

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

Mass campaigns over the years included «TO PLAN IS TO CHOOSE» campaign to help Tanzanians to understand and participate in the implementation of the Second Five Year Development Plan; «THE CHOICE IS YOURS», which aimed at helping Tanzanians to choose their leaders wisely and thus prepare for the Parliamentary and Presidential elections in 1970; «TIME FOR REJOICING» which, coinciding with the Tenth Anniversary of Independence, set out to foster national pride among the people of Tanzania and to educate them in the history and development achievement of Tanzania since independence; and «MAN IS HEALTH» campaign, launched in 1973 to educate people about preventable diseases such as malaria, dysentry, hookworms, bilharzia and tuberculosis, followed by the «FOOD IS LIFE» campaign which laid stress on diseases associated with malnutrition and how to prevent them by eating available alternative food.

The «FORESTS ARE WEALTH» campaign was conducted in 1980. According to the Institute of Adult Education, the campaign was launched when it was observed that natural forests were being damaged and were disappearing rapidly year by year. The campaign objectives were:

(a) To educate the people about the necessity of conserving, managing and developing existing forest estates for the supply of such forest produce as timber, firewood and charcoal.

(b) To raise people's awareness of the consequences of indiscriminate cutting of trees, misuse of forest-land for grazing, over-grazing, agricultural malpractices.

(c) To educate the people on the rules governing the use of forests in general and of forest produce in particular.

(d) To initiate and encourage tree-planting especially where the forests had disappeared as a result of fire or felling.

To facilitate the participation of the people in rural areas in development projects, supervision and monitoring mechanisms were set up at the regional, district, ward and village levels. The mechanisms in the ward and village comprised the following:

Ward

Ward Party Secretary as the Chairman
Ward Adult Education Co-ordinator as Secretary
Village Chairman
Village Secretaries
Workers serving in Forest, Agriculture, Livestock departments

Village

Village Chairman as the Chairman
The head teacher of the primary school as secretary
Village secretary
Five village council members
Village manager and other government employees in the village

Each group was supposed to plan, execute, monitor and evaluate activities and report to a higher level.

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

The «USE OF VENTILATED PIT LATRINE» campaign started in 1983 with Temeke District as the pilot study area. Several model latrines were built in such public places as hospitals, schools, and in the vicinity of the Party offices. The campaign was planned to reach its climax by 1986-1987.

Positive results were observed in most of the campaigns, although people relapsed into pre-campaign attitudes due to lack of follow-up. Nevertheless, in general, an atmosphere was created in which people in rural areas were better able to take control of their health. They were given access to specific relevant information they could use for their own benefit. They increasingly participated in political and agricultural development. In the course of it all, a viable alternative to the traditional student/teacher relationship was established, not to mention the low cost at which the villager was reached. For example, the «MAN IS HEALTH» campaign is said to have cost US$0.51 per villager reached. What is more, the campaigns have given the Tanzanian society confidence in its ability to solve national problems. For instance, a «TREES ARE WEALTH» campaign of 1980 was recently repeated in several places - Shinyanga, Tabora, Dodoma, Singida and Arusha - to fight desiccation and the threat of desert conditions.

Since 1970, four evaluations have been conducted of the national literacy campaign. One general conclusion reached was that the acquisition of literacy skills among the rural people has been facilitated. The 1970 declaration was a welcome catalyst when specific dates were set for the eradication of illiteracy. But more important, the literacy campaign effectively involved people in rural areas in an educational activity, which put many of them on the way to becoming literate.

Whatever was achieved in literacy skills was but part of the success in adult education activities in Tanzania, all of which is traceable to national policies that view rural areas as the basis for the country's development and consider it urgent that there should be an increasing number of enlightened people in those areas to help in the development process. Policies designed to effect integration have, in particular, facilitated the easy functioning of many adult education activities without much cost.

Moreover, the cause enjoyed great support from the Ruling Party and Government in general. Two measures were particularly supportive: the Village Act of 1975 and Act No. 12 of the same year in respect of the role of the Institute of Adult Education.

The Village Act recognized the principle of each village being in a position to deal with its own affairs through an elected body. It provided for five committees which would service such a body on social, economic and political affairs. The cultural/educational committee, dealt with the formal and non-formal education in the village, particularly regarding such issues as attendance, mass education, self-help and health programmes, all in the interest of facilitating education in rural areas.

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

By Act No. 12 of 1975, the Institute of Adult Education, which was formally part of the University of Dar es Salaam, became an autonomous Parastal charged with the function of promoting and organizing adult education as well as carrying out activities for the education of adults which institutions of its kind normally undertake. This meant, in the Tanzanian context, a deeper involvement in life in the rural areas.

The Second Five-Year Development Plan (1969-1974)

The major stress of the Second Five-Year Development Plan was on rural development. The Plan stated that:

> «In line with the Arusha Declaration, the Government will aim at improving the standard of the rural population. Thus we may expect that relatively less will be available for improving the conditions of the urban population.»

The Plan still considered secondary and university education vital, although its main emphasis was on primary education which, it envisaged, should be made available to all school-age children by 1989. Sepcifically, 1,900 new Std. I classes would be opened and new Std.V classrooms would be constructed. As a result, the number of children in Std. I would rise from 163,000 in 1969 to 208,000 by 1974 while the number of children in Std. V would go up from 6,900 to 147,000. This expansion programme would require 2,850 trained teachers by 1974. Although expansion in secondary education was to be limited, science-related subjects having a bearing on rural development, such as agriculture and engineering, were to be emphasized.

This development plan also gave consideration to adult education in rural areas. To minimize costs as well as foster integration, the formal and non-formal systems of education were given equal weight. The Plan summed up the approach in the following words:

> In general, the people's primary school will serve as a centre in each community for adult education activities and the headmaster of the school will be responsible not only for the education of children but also for the programme of adult education.

Universal Primary Education (UPE)

The objectives set out under Education for Self-reliance included the provision of education to all people and preparation of youths for rural life. The Ruling Party meeting in Musoma resolved that UPE programmes, formally planned to begin in 1980, should start earlier «with a view to having all children in primary school by 1989».

President Nyerere had estimated in 1975 that nearly 46% of children of age 9-14 years had no opportunity of going to school. The Primary Education Reform Project launched to grapple with the problem from 1974/1975 to 1977/1978 was reckoned to result in an increase of 243,000 seven year-olds in school requiring 40,000 teachers. To pay for UPE, it was estimated that T.Shs.189.5 million would be provided by the Government and an additional T.Shs.58.8 million would come from parents contributing 20 shillings each.

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

The Swedish International Development Authority (SIDA) contributed T.Shs.20 million in the first year to be used for training and production of learning/teaching materials.

The programme began with seminars for the organizers and a three-month course for 2,296 ward Adult Co-ordinators, destined to be the teacher-educators. A total of 40,000 youths were to be trained as teachers, most of whom had served as volunteer literacy teachers in adult education classes; while in training they were to be paid an allowance of 150/- per month. Accordingly, 13,510, 13,747 and 18,277 trainees were recruited respectively in the years 1976, 1977 and 1978 making a total of 45,534.

Training combined face to face tuition conducted by the ward adult education co-ordinators in the villages with correspondence and radio programmes. In addition, trainees had practice-teaching of 10 to 13 periods a week and attended a three-week residential course in a public Teachers' College. The course content included Kiswahili, mathematics, child psychology, syllabus analysis and pedagogy.

The UPE programme also assumed a self-reliance character. Parents contributed toward the construction of classrooms while the Government provided roofing corrugated iron sheets and learning materials.

At the end of the three years, a test for the trainees was conducted. The results are shown in the table below.

UPE Teacher Trainees Examination Results
(Mzava 1985)

Year of Examination	No. of 3rd year trainees	Passed	% of pass
1979	12,846	12,470	97.1
1980	10,657	9,575	93.6
1981	13,822	12,583	90.0
Total	37,325	35,028	93.8

Since the target was to get 40,000 teachers, these results show 87.6% achievement. By 1984, 3,522,923 children had been enrolled constituting 71.6% of the target figure.

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

There were constraints on the success of the UPE programme. First among them was the delay in the provision of classrooms for the additional children leading to congestion in classes and much improvisation. Others were the following:

(a) School management was not easy because there were not enough teachers.

(b) The self-reliance approach did not produce sufficient classrooms even a year after, because newly-settled villages had difficulty in mobilizing the people for the construction of classrooms on a self-help basis. Only 24% of parents were able to contribute the 20 shillings expected of each of them.

(c) Not all school-age children could be enrolled particularly in rural areas where parents required children to contribute to socio-economic activities such as animal-rearing.

(d) Not all new schools could be supplied with learning and teaching materials like exercise books, pencils and text books or furniture such as desks, chairs and tables.

(e) The arrangement by which some well-qualified teachers became Ward Adult Education Co-ordinators affected (and still affects) the teaching service.

(f) The UPE teachers required upgrading courses.

A number of measures were necessary to increase access to education which in the specially difficult circumstances of the rural areas, were of a decided advantage to them; among them - the National Education Act (1978), effort to promote the education of the handicapped and to maintain a balance between classroom work and out-of-class manual activities.

To ensure that all school-age children do attend school, section 35 of the National Education Act made attendance compulsory and empowered the Minister of Education to make rules for the better carrying out of the purposes of the section. According to one such set of rules - the primary school compulsory enrolment rules 1979 (Chapter 4) - a parent, or any person other than the parent, who prevents a child from attending school or causes his absence from school may be punished.

By 1976 there were three schools for the blind and six schools which other physically handicapped, as well as normal, children attended. The blind schools increased to four in 1984. Government was allocating about 2,825 shillings ($70.8) per head per year to the education they were planning as part of the drive to ensure that all children had access to schooling. According to the Tanzania League of Blind Centres, there are 100,500 blind people in Tanzania today, but it is feared that the actual number is higher. Information on «special» children - the deaf, the blind and physically handicapped - is scanty due to the fact that many of these children live in the rural areas where parents still feel that it is cruel to send a handicapped child away from home, even if one can afford the cost.

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

The early efforts to implement Education for Self-reliance (ESR) required that education be as much meshed with work as possible As agriculture is the main occupation of the people, the early misconception of ESR led, in some places, to a concentration on crop production. As the school was required under ESR to contribute at least 25% of the total educational costs, through the production of food to feed the pupils, rural schools gave more time to field work than was justified.

For a country as big as Tanzania, several regions had different planting seasons. Consequently, each school was forced to adapt its timetable to fit in with local agricultural activities. This led to some confusion and created problems for the school administration and, indeed, for children regarding their holidays and travel. A national timetable was, therefore, adopted in 1980 by which all primary schools would operate from Monday to Fridays only. This measure relieved, to some extent, remote rural schools of over-indulgence in agricultural work and related activities at the expense of classroom work.

The Presidential Education Commission

By 1979, the public was becoming sceptical of some aspects of primary and secondary school education in Tanzania. It was concerned about the quality of the literacy skills of children at the end of seven years of primary schooling and the level of ability to speak English of those who completed secondary education. It detected falling standards in education in Tanzania. Equally disturbing was the inability in general of most youths to be self-employed and the reluctance of those who could to remain in the rural areas. Against this background, a Presidential Education Commission was appointed in November 1980 to review education in Tanzania and make recommendations to facilitate over-all development of education to the year 2000.

The Commission noted that skills and attitudes appropriate and relevant to the national policies of Socialism and Self-reliance was of the utmost importance in education. Its report highlighted:

(a) The aims and objectives of pre-primary education of children between 3 and 7 years of age.

(b) The need: (i) to continue the consolidation of primary education, ensuring that the size of a class did not exceed 35 and would be reduced by the year 2000; (ii) to expand secondary education to meet a rapidly increasing demand through the establishment of day secondary schools and the invitation to voluntary agencies to establish secondary schools while Government itself would make provision for not less than 15 per cent of children completing primary education to be able to enter government secondary schools by the year 2000; (iii) to improve the knowledge of English at all levels; and (iv) expansion of distance learning to meet the demands of post-literates and primary and secondary schools leavers.

The Third Five-Year Development Plan (1981-1986)

Several recommendations of the Presidential Education Commission were incorporated in the Third Five-Year Development Plan: to improve the quality of education; continue to make available essential teaching and learning

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

materials, provide «terminal» education to serve the best interest of primary school leavers and provide functional literacy for illiterates; to expand education to reach all people including the handicapped. In addition, the Plan aimed:

(a) to improve the teacher/pupil ratio from 1:47 to 1:35;

(b) to raise the quality of education through the implementation of the community-school target concept which emphasizes an effective linkage between theory and developmental activities in villages and urban centres; and

(c) to strengthen existing craft centres through the combined and co-ordinated efforts of those ministries and parastatal organizations concerned with technical education to ensure that the training provided responds to the needs of the communities.

IV. OBSERVATIONS ON SOME RESULTS OF MEASURES

Financing and Staffing of Primary Education and Wastage

Effort to attain the objectives set in ESR - abolition of school fees, expansion, the development of new curricula and the realization of the benefits of education among the majority who live in rural areas - has led Government to adjust the financing of education accordingly. The efforts are best illustrated from the following table.

Since independence, and particularly after the introduction of the Education for Self-reliance policy, expenditure for education has been rising, as shown in the table below.

Government Budget and Ministry of Education Allocation

Year	Allocation		Relative Change	
	Total	Education	Total	Education
1971/72	970.0	59.3	100	100
1972/73	1295.9	60.3	135	102
1973/74	1972.5	66.8	305	113
1974/75	2839.7	68.0	292	215
1975/76	311.9	151.0	231	255
1976/77	3742.6	245.6	285	413
1977/78	4591.4	220.8	475	372
1978/79	5888.2	259.4	606	437
1979/80	6971.5	310.0	718	523
1980/81	6302.4	245.0	649	414

Source: Galabawa (1985)

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

More needed to be done, however, and other sources of income were tapped. The table below refers.

Other Sources of Income
(T.Sh. in millions)

Source	1980/81	1982/83
Tanzania	28.7	33
Sweden	84.7	23.2
IBRD	5.0	17.2
Denmark	10.4	13.3
Federal Republic of Germany	3.6	4.5
UNICEF	1.0	1.8
Norway	4.1	1.0
Others	13.1	3.7

Source: Galabawa J. (1985)

A survey of several rural schools to study establishment and quality of teachers revealed some striking facts. The Ministry of Education formula on the establishment of teachers is that in any primary school of seven grades in urban areas there must be eight teachers including at least three trained grade A teachers while in a rural primary school there should be seven teachers including at least two trained grade A teachers. The formula therefore carries an inherent disparity in urban and rural schools.

In an evaluation of the Universal Primary Education Programme (Sikamwe, 1983) it was noted that many schools in Sumbawanga and other rural areas had a «predominance of ex-class seven teachers. They constituted 58.8% of the teachers in the schools -a further evidence of the low quality of teachers of rural schools». One extreme case was that of three ex-standard seven teachers, with mean years of schooling of three years, who were running a primary school of seven grades. Although the average enrolment per class was only eight pupils, showing a waste of more than 60%, it did not mean a reduction in the work-load of the teachers.

The evaluation mentioned above further noted that most teachers in rural schools were there on their first appointment. Some were on normal transfer to reinforce the teaching staff or had followed their working spouses. There were others, however, who had private projects in rural areas for increasing their incomes or were preparing for retirement.

There were acute shortages of teachers, nonetheless. Teachers themselves reckoned the following to be among the causes of the shortage of teachers in the rural areas:

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

(a) Hardworking teachers away from administrative centres and in remote areas, are not recognized and rewarded.

(b) Information and salaries are not promptly received.

(c) Teachers in rural areas: (i) are not provided with all necessary allowances when on duty or in hospital at district headquarters; (ii) lack information and services regarding further studies for teachers and members of their family; (iii) are not provided with special incentives such as teachers' houses, transport allowances, loans to purchase bicycles, etc.

It had been thought that with settlement in villages completed, school services brought nearer to the people, the inspectorate mechanism formed, there would be relatively steady enrolment and attendance would be reinforced by the compulsory school attendance act. The contrary has been observed. In some cases attendance was constantly less than 50 per cent and the wastage rates between 45 and 60%. School teachers considered the following to be among the causes:

(a) lack of: (i) frequent socialization among parents and community in general regarding children's schooling; (ii) supervised youth cultural group activities; and (iii) constant inspection; and

(b) non-enforcement of the compulsory school attendance act.

The head teachers suggested that the act be supported by more positive incentive measures including:

(a) The improvement of the school environment.

(b) The provision of awards and acknowledgement to schools with good attendance and assistance to those with a poor record to rectify the situation.

(c) Active school participation.

(d) Interesting activities like Parents' Day, sports and cultural inter-school meetings, and Party involvement.

Non-formal Education

According to the 1967 census, about 75% of the nation's adults were illiterate. Literacy education, therefore, was taken as the natural starting point for adult education. In 1968/1969, Tanzania was one of eleven countries in the developing world which participated in the Unesco/UNDP Experimental World Literacy Programme, basing its pilot activities in four districts around Lake Victoria, and using functional literacy as one of its principal methods.

Mass campaigns in several parts of the country contributed much to a national literacy programme. They encouraged the reading habit among people and positive action to solve problems in the environment. The campaigns employed mass media techniques to enhance the dissemination of information. Although the wider adult education programmes employed such other delivery

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

systems as rural libraries, correspondence education, Folk Development Colleges, and the Mwanza Literacy Centre, the greatest emphasis was on literacy programmes as the first step in adult education through the written word. Nation-wide literacy classes first launched in 1971 helped to reduce the rate of illiteracy to 15% by 1983.

Since 1975, Folk Development Colleges (FDCs) have been established with financial and technical assistance from the Swedish Government to run both short-term and long-term courses for post-literates in general education, to develop vocational skills and provide cultural training. In the process, a new curriculum for post-literacy programmes was introduced with the objective of merging theory and practice in the agricultural, technical and domestic sciences.

It has been observed, however, that:

(a) Some FDCs organized very few courses for the new literates who emerged from the National Literacy Examinations.

(b) FDCs have gained in popularity through offering courses in semi-professional skills to rural ex-standard seven young people.

(c) FDCs were perpetually short of funds for organizing courses.

(d) Some FDCs were successful in their projects and earned money or material to cover part of their educational service costs as required by the Education for Self-reliance policy.

On the question of equality of the sexes in non-formal education, women in Tanzania had fewer places in vocational training programmes run by religious organizations and the Government. Few enrolled for courses through correspondence education. Their participation in radio group programmes was minimal compared to that of men partly because of their work including family care, and farming activities. Nevertheless, women out-number men by four to three in adult literacy programmes.

Among problems confronting non-formal education, the following may be mentioned:

(a) Untrained teachers have relied too heavily on repetition of written material without paying sufficient attention to comprehensive or meaningful discussion of the material.

(b) The term «adult education» is much too often taken to mean literacy training. There is hardly a clear view of how printed material can be used to enhance skills and knowledge of ordinary people.

(c) The administration of adult education is often regarded as an additional burden to people who are fully occupied with other duties.

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

(d) Attendance at adult education classes is irregular owing to:

(i) lack of literacy teachers;

(ii) inadequate learning and teaching materials like boards, chalk, exercise books and primers;

(iii) the Institute of Adult Education finds it difficult to conduct evening classes for the rural population because of lack of funds, facilities and qualified personnel.

(iv) regional centres of the Institute of Adult Education require transport facilities for the co-ordinators to go round the rural areas; but as these are not available the Institute's participation in mobilizing adults into the programme is minimal;

(v) the Institute organizes educational and economic projects, for example, in farming, with a view to helping to solve rural problems in specified areas and in Tanzania as a whole. But such effort in projects, or even through correspondence courses, among youths in rural areas is severely limited because of shortage of funds.

It is recognized that both non-formal and formal education should lead to self-employment and employment in jobs, which means that education should provide useful skills and knowledge about modern animal husbandry, crop agriculture, civics and economic project skills which would help the recipients to live in rural areas as useful members. But the necessary vocational and practical courses have not been possible because neither the Institute nor the Government can finance all such programmes.

Good co-operation and co-ordination would help the Institute of Adult Education to reach the rural population. For example, rural study centres can be created where qualified primary school teachers can be involved in running the programmes. Also, people can be mobilized to contribute funds to run the courses.

Adult education is financed by the Government through the Ministry of Education which channels funds through the local government with the District Education Officer and the Adult Education Co-ordinator available to exercise supervision. The funds so channelled cover personal emoluments, purchase of teaching and learning materials and the construction of classrooms or centres for adult education activities in the ward. They are also used for maintenance and travel services and seminars for personnel directly involved in adult education.

The Government receives funds from external sources also, such as international organizations and agencies, for general purposes or for specific items of adult education such as the Folk Colleges or literacy programmes. Many organizations have contributed generously to adult education in general. They include the British Council, USAID, DANIDA, NORAD, Unesco, SIDA, Broedelijk Delen (BD) OXFAM of Britain, International Council for Adult Education and Development, German Adult Education Association, EQDE and the Canadian Organization through Development in Education.

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Contributions from these sources from 1969 to 1976 are shown below alongside Tanzania Government allocations.

Contributions to Adult Education

Year	Contributions	
	Government	External Donors
1969/70	3,757,495	-
1970/71	9,966,500	-
1971/72	11,031,800	3,553,550
1972/73	18,732,700	27,403,798
1973/74	20,552,000	27,625,238
1974/75	22,600,000	27,732,528
1975/76	26,967,330	34,038,065

Source: Mpogolo (1980)

For all that, the programmes are usually impeded by lack of funds, and management and co-ordination skills. It is not unusual, as a result, for new adult literates not to move into post-literacy classes.

However, the National Literacy Evaluations conducted in the 1980s revealed that 85% of the former illiterate population could read, write and do some simple sums. Measures to sustain such a literacy rate include the publication of rural newspapers, the establishment of rural libraries and the promotion of writers' workshops for post-literacy readers. The «JUHUDI Series» books produced by the Institute of Adult Education is one example. Another is the Ruling Party's newspaper «UHURU» which devotes some pages to the newly literate, while Radio Tanzania also carries programmes for the same group as well as for literacy teachers. There are 52 Folk Colleges in Tanzania, which run long and short-term courses of two to six months for nominees from nearby villages.

Despite all these efforts, there were certain weak points:

(a) Not all people who had attained literacy skills continued into higher levels, i.e. grades V and VI.

(b) The rural libraries were not sufficiently equipped with necessary literature either for the new literates, or other young and adults who wished to inform themselves.

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

(c) The rural newspapers did not reach all who needed them nor did they encourage self-reliance and the kind of attitudes necessary in the rural areas.

Moreover, little or nothing was being done to help young people, outside the secondary and primary schools, to understand the aspirations of the society in which they lived. They need assistance from the village community to form youth organizations where they can exchange ideas, learn skills related to life in their rural areas, in general, and to co-operation in particular. Further they need to be involved in non-formal educational activities. Often they did not have information about the opportunities in their rural area, and even when the information was available, most of the youths thought that their parents would not be able to pay for them to benefit from the facilities offered. In fact, there are no organized educational programmes for the youths in rural areas, which would give them skills needed to be effective members in rural areas.

Secondary Education Level

The Government's general strategy is to provide, at least, basic education for all the people through the formal and non-formal systems. This means that the development of other levels will be slow. The Presidential Commission on Education proposed that secondary school education should expand to provide secondary places by the year 2000 for less than 20 per cent of all children who complete the primary school. The number of secondary school entrants is small at present. In 1984 only 10,077 out of 645,560 (1.6%) of those who completed primary school got places in the public secondary schools.

There are, and will continue to be, more public and private secondary schools in towns than in the rural areas.

Hence the first handicap for children in rural areas - availability. Secondly, at present the fees for a private day secondary school is more than US $175 (Tz.Shs. 7,000/=) per pupil per year. Considering that the per capita income in Tanzania today is hardly more than US$50, the fee of US$175 is far above the capacity of rural people to pay. As a result, young people who complete primary education in rural areas either remain there with hardly any skills to contribute effectively to local socio-economic activities or they flock to the towns in search of wage employment which is often not available. Several are pushed, in the towns, to make ends meet through some petty business or even such crimes as theft and burglary.

Rural people, therefore, benefit little from secondary education opportunities. Despite the quota system of selection for entry into public secondary schools, children entering form I are, in general, those of parents with higher education and in white collar jobs and mostly employed in urban centres. Other parents, outside this group, who invest in private schooling opportunities for their children, rent rooms for the children or place them in the care of a family friend - steps which are both costly and unsafe and prevent parents from sending their daughters away from home to study in private secondary schools. There is, of course, the view of some parents that investment in girls' education is, in any case, not necessary; they are better-off at home and helping with the family work. Normally, peasants who send their children to fee-paying secondary schools are those from cash-crop growing rural areas, or from middle-class farmers' homes.

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Another handicap lies in the fact that private secondary schools in towns benefit much from existing pool of teachers available in the public school sector who are often used as part-time teachers and consultants. Even where rural people manage to construct secondary schools on a self-help basis, they face the problem of obtaining qualified teachers and cannot get such part-time services that are available in the towns. Moreover, learning materials and facilities, such as libraries and bookshops, are rare in rural areas and pose a serious problem.

New Initiatives by the Government

Recently the Government has called upon organizations or institutions and people to help in the establishment of secondary schools provided they register them officially, follow the national curricula and, preferably, make them science-biased establishments. There has been a positive response. The institutions that have responded to this call are the Tanzania Parents Association (TAPA) which so far runs 52 secondary schools, and the Institute of Adult Education and religious organizations which have schools all over Tanzania including the rural areas. The tendency, though, has been to establish them in urban areas and unwittingly discriminate against the rural areas.

Higher Education

After independence, the rapid development of higher education opportunities was a major part of the push to achieve manpower self-sufficiency by 1980.

The University College of Dar es Salaam became an autonomous institution shortly after independence and achieved the status of a national university in 1970. Since independence Tanzania has expanded the training of university level students at home and abroad. As part of the programme to expand higher educational facilities to meet the manpower needs of Tanzania, particularly in the science-based disciplines, the Faculty of Agriculture, Veterinary Science and Forestry of the University of Dar es Salaam was transformed into the Sokoine University of Agriculture in 1984. The emphasis on science education was actually called for in the Second Five-Year Development Plan (1969-1974).

Higher education like other levels of education is concerned about development in rural areas. Accordingly, its institutions carry out relevant research and provide necessary consultancy services. For example, the Sokoine University of Agriculture carries out research in soil, types of crops and seeds as well as in grazing areas for animal husbandry. Its consultancy services bring theoretical knowledge and results of research to farmers to improve their farming practices and increase productivity. The University conducts local and international workshops, seminars and conferences, using the Centre for Continuing Education on Developing Rural Areas for the purpose. The University of Dar es Salaam, Institute of Development Management carries out similar programmes for the improvement of the life in rural areas.

In addition to financial allocations from the Government for the running of third level institutions, external donors help in providing buildings and equipment; they also sponsor members of staff requiring studies abroad. For example, the USSR is helping to build Mbeya Technical College. The Swiss Government has financed the building of staff houses at the University of Dar es Salaam.

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V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Tanzania has made commendable efforts in facilitating education in rural areas through the formal and non-formal systems. In particular, primary education has been expanded and adult education promoted through an integrated and self-reliance approach to education, which has sought the active participation of people in rural areas in the provision and improvement of education. The support from the Ruling Party and the Government has been invaluable.

Despite such positive aspects, however, there are certain matters which require serious attention. Five are mentioned below together with recommendations.

1. Quality and Quantity of Education

In both formal and non-formal education, effort should be made to improve quality through the adequate supply of teachers, learning and teaching materials and efficient management and administration, etc.

2. The Curricula

The curricula should be examined and, if necessary, revised to incorporate such content and teaching and learning that will more effectively help learners, both the young and adults, to acquire the skills they require for living in the rural areas as well as the knowledge and attitudes they need for their own self-development as individuals and citizens.

3. Financial Support

Creative ways should be found to raise funds to supplement Government allocations and external aid, it being understood that, in the final analysis, the main burden of development will have to be shouldered by Tanzanians.

4. The Need for the Party and Government Support

The Ruling Party must find ways and means of giving active support to measures taken by the Government.

5. The Need for Planning

There is a need for more thorough planning of programmes before they are launched. Specifically:

(a) Pre-primary education should be co-ordinated by the Ministry of Education with a view to enabling it to organize consistent programmes in preparation for primary education throughout the country.

(b) An institution for child welfare should be created and assigned the responsibility to deal with development of the child in all its aspects including the provision of health services and food and education, etc.

APPENDIX III (Cont'd)

(c) Educational programme needs of rural areas for adult and young people should be constantly studied with the aim of establishing effective and relevant socio-economic-based programmes. The study should include a thorough analysis of the characteristics of young people living in rural areas. Incentive schemes for teachers in the formal and non-formal systems working in rural areas should be designed to encourage more teachers to work in rural areas. The incentives might include the provision of teachers' quarters, occupational health services, organized educational seminars, special loan schemes, etc.

(d) Non-formal education should progressively be staffed by trained teachers, who will support post-literacy programmes throughout the country to curb relapse into illiteracy.

(e) Information services in rural areas should be improved and organized. They should include libraries and information centres with up-to-date and relevant information for people living in rural areas in general and youth brigades and youths in particular.

(f) Low-cost but good quality furniture, equipment and teaching and learning materials should be produced, use being made of skills within polytechnics and school workshops and local material, for example, timber, to the fullest extent.

(g) While most private day secondary schools are built in towns, the effort of Government to build public secondary schools should be directed in favour of rural areas.

(h) Information on changes in syllabuses or textbooks should be disseminated to schools in rural areas as fast as possible. The present practice of information on new syllabuses and textbooks reaching rural schools two or more years after the schools in towns have had them should give way to a more rapid dissemination of such information in the rural areas.